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V.1
1826

keeping, . . 175
The Elements of Geography and History — By F. Butler, A. M. 176
The Practical Reader.— By M. R. Bartlett. 178
Intelligence.—Boston Scientific Library, . 180
Education in Ohio, . 183
Mutual Instruction, . ib.
College and school lands in Indiana, . . ib.
Professional and Commercial Institutions, . ib.
University of London, 184
State of Education in the Highlands of Scotland, ib.
Wesleyan Academy, Wilbraham, Mass. . 186
College at Geneva, N. Y. 187
Common Schools, . ib.
Education of the children of Seamen, . . ib.
Naval School, . . ib.
Mercantile Libraries in the United States, 188
Prizes awarded to works on Education, . . ib.
Public Schools in Baltimore, ib.
Notices.—Works in the Department of Education, 189
Books for Children, . 191

NUMBER IV.

Miscellaneous Articles—Infant Schools, . 193
Primary Schools in Holland, . . . 200
Public Latin School in Boston. . . . 209
School Fund for the several States, . 220
Public Schools of Massachusetts, . . 231
Reviews—Medical Gymnastics; or exercise applied according to the laws of Physiology, of Hygiene, and Therapeutics, By Charles Londe, M. D. 235
Adam's Latin Grammar, with some Improvements and additions.— By B. A. Gould, . 239
Intelligence—Edinburgh University, . 247
Edinburgh Asylum for the Blind, . . 248
Law school at Northampton, . . . 249
Gymnastic Exercises, 250
Lectures on Civil Law, ib.
Importance of Education, ib.
Easton College, Pa., . ib.
Indian Schools. . 251
Mechanics' Institutions in England, . . ib.
Mechanics' Institutions, in France, . . ib.
Common Schools in North Carolina, . . ib.
Public Schools in Pennsylvania, . . ib.
Proposed Institution in Massachusetts, . 252
Instruction in Peru, . ib.
Yale College, . ib.
Primary Schools in Maryland, . . . ib.
Useful Suggestions, . ib.
Notices.—Works in the Department of Education, 253
Books for Children, . 255
Answers to Correspondents 256

NUMBER V.

Miscellaneous Articles.—Infant Schools, . 257
Public Latin School in Boston, . . . 265
Hon. John T. Irving's Address on the opening of the New York High School for Females, 270
Christ Church Sunday

Practical Institution and School for Inatructers, Mass. . . 434
Gymnasium in Boston, 436
Round Hill School, . 437
State of the Schools in Boston, May, 1826, 439
Albany Lancaster School, 440
Monitorial High School, Geneseo, New-York 441
Practical Education on the Continent of Europe, 441
Connecticut School Fund, 441
Instruction of Mechanics, ib.
Connecticut Common Schools, . . ib.
Gymnasium in Boston, 443
Books for Children, 445
Rev. Mr. Newland's Essay on Education, . ib.
British and Foreign School Society, . . 445
Notices.—Works in the Department of Education,
Gazetteer of the State of New-Hampshire, . 446
Friend of Youth, . 447
Discourses on Bathing, ib.
Books for Children.—The Son of a Genius, ib.
The Deformed Boy, 448
Answers to Correspondents ib.

NUMBER VIII.

Miscellaneous Articles.—Education of Infants, 449
Schools in the City of New-York . 459
University of Georgia, 475
Jullien's Questions on Education. . . 481
Proposed Society of Education, . . 485
Reviews.—President Humphrey's Inaugural Address, . . 489
Strictures on 'Remarks on Greek Grammars,' 496
Intelligence.—Prospectus of the London Gymnastic Society, . . 502
Mr. Emerson's Female Seminary, Wethersfield, Connecticut, . 506
Mr. Thayer's School, Boston, . . 508
The Teacher's Guide and Parent's Assistant, 510
North American Review ib.
Infant Schools in the City of New-York, . ib.
Notices—Works in the department of Education.
Pike's Arithmetic, . 511
Marshall's Spelling Book, ib.
Books for children.
Harry and Lucy, . 512
Frank, . . . ib.
Answers to Correspondents. ib.

NUMBER IX.

Miscellaneous Articles.—Education of Infants, 514
Academic Education in England, . . 524
Mr. Emerson's Female Seminary, Connecticut, 539
Suggestions to Parents, 544
Reviews—Jardine's Outlines of Philosophical Education, . . 547
Webster's Manual of Chemistry, . . 554
Strictures on Murray's Grammar, . . 556
Intelligence.—Mr. Thayer's School, Boston, . 561
College in Philadelphia, 566
American Annual Register, 568
Juvenile Miscellany, 569
Map of Boston, ib.
Returns from School Committees in Massachusetts 570
Grammar School of Glasgow, Scotland, . 571
Boston Public Schools, 572

servations on Popular Education, &c. . 677
Intelligence.—Col. Amoros' Gymnastic school, Paris, 689
London Mechanics' Institution, . . . 690
Education in Lower Canada, . . . 690
Progress of Education among the Hottentots, 691
Education in Mexico, 692
View of Colleges in the United States, . 696
Theological Seminaries, 693
Central School, city of New York, . . 693
Geneva College, Ontario County, New York, 693
Education in Buenos Ayres, 694
Columbian College, District of Columbia, . 996
University of Virginia, 697
Physical Exercise for Females, . . 698
Teachers of Gymnastics,—Proposals of Dr. Lieber, 699
Infant School—Philadelphia, ... 701
Gymnasium in Boston, 701
Notices.—*School Books.* Spafford's Gazetteer of the State of New York, 702
Prize Book, No. VI. of the Public Latin School in Boston, . . 703
Books for Children.—The Friendless Boy, . 704
Little Susan and her Lamb, ib.
Answers to Correspondents, ib.

NUMBER XII.

Miscellaneous Articles.—Professional Education, 705
Improvement of School & Text Books, . 718
Jullien's Questions on Education—Intellectual Instruction, . . 730
Suggestions to Parents—Moral and Religious Education, . . 734
Reviews.—Frost's Class book of American Literature, 737
Strictures on Murray's Grammar. (*Concluded*) 739
Retrospect.—Progress of Education, during the year, 1826. . . 751
Answers to Correspondents, 763
Index to the Volume, . 765

work such as is now proposed, we think unnecessary. With the success of other publications of the same class before us, we feel abundant encouragement to proceed in our undertaking.

A leading object of the JOURNAL will be to furnish *a record of facts*, embracing whatever information the most diligent inquiry can procure, regarding the past and present state of education, in the United States, and in foreign countries. An opportunity will thus be afforded for a fair comparison of the merits of various systems of instruction. The results of actual experiment will be presented; and the causes of failure, as well as of success, may thus be satisfactorily traced, and be made to suggest valuable improvements.

The conductors of the JOURNAL will make it their constant endeavor to aid in diffusing *enlarged and liberal views of education*. Nothing, it seems to us, has had more influence in retarding the progress of improvement in the science of instruction, than narrow and partial views of what education should be expected to produce. Intellectual attainments have been too exclusively the object of attention. It is too common a thing to consider a man well educated, if he has made a proper use of the common facilities for the acquisition of learning; though the result may have been obtained at the expense of his health, and with much neglect of that moral culture which is the surest foundation of happiness. In many plans of education, which are in other respects excellent, the fact seems to have been overlooked that man possesses an animal, and a moral, as well as an intellectual constitution. Hence the total neglect of the requisite provisions for the developement of the corporeal system, and the confirmation and improvement of health, the only foundation of mental as well as of bodily power. The moral department of education has too commonly been restricted to an occasional word of parental approbation or reproof; or, at the best, to efforts limited by the sphere of domestic life. The natural consequence of the restrictions thus unjustly laid on education, is, that we often find, in the same individual, a learned head, but a debilitated body, and a neglected heart. Education should, we think, be regarded as the means of fitting man for the discharge of *all* his duties: it should produce vigorous and hardy bodies, trained to powerful action, and inured to privation and fa-

rather than a recommendation. But explanatory, practical instruction, under whatever name it may appear, we shall be happy at all times to aid with our best exertions.

As our pages are to be devoted to the cause of education, throughout our country, an earnest and cordial invitation is given to persons in every quarter, who take an interest in our labors, to assist us by the communication of useful and interesting matter.

*** Since publishing our prospectus, and taking a nearer view of our undertaking, we have felt that it will be necessary to allow ourselves more space. It will be impossible for us to do justice to our subject, without introducing a greater number and variety of topics, than we anticipated. We propose, therefore, that each number shall contain sixty-four instead of forty-eight pages: the price to be four dollars a year. For the difference of price, arising from this circumstance, our readers will, we hope, find themselves amply compensated in the additional quantity of interesting matter with which they will be furnished.

The change of our title will not, we hope, be viewed as an ambitious assumption. It was suggested by our desire to avoid any impression that our work is local in its character or design. We wish to subserve the cause of education, not in our state or country merely, but throughout the continent.

influence over the young mind: they form its predilections, and, not unfrequently, determine its character. This department of our labors will, we hope, be interesting to every parent who is anxious that the mind of his child should be early directed to knowledge and virtue.

Within a few years, public sentiment has undergone a favorable change on the subject of early education. Learning is made easy and pleasant, by the judicious forms in which it is presented; and the disposition of children is cultivated by the milder methods. But, of all the attempts which have been made to render the morning of life a season of pure enjoyment, the system of infant schools seems the most successful. In England, these schools have hitherto been applied to the melioration of the condition of the poor: they have been employed as a substitute for maternal care. There is no good reason, however, why they should be restricted to any one class, whilst they are so well calculated for the benefit of all. Nor is there any reason why they should not be adopted as valuable auxiliaries to the best parental management; and we are happy to observe the system of these schools introduced in the initiatory department of the high-school of New-York. The establishment of infant schools we look upon as one of the most important epochs in the history of education. We shall use every endeavor to render this subject familiar to the minds of our readers, by communicating all the information we can procure regarding the details of the system, and its progress abroad and at home.

In this era of great and rapid revolutions in society, nothing has yet appeared which seems likely to be attended with more extensive and lasting effects, than the formation of mechanics' institutions. Taking their rise from the legacy of an individual, they have spread over Great Britain, with a rapidity which reminds us more of the operations of the telegraph, than of the movements of a whole people, on the sober subject of education. The mechanic classes of British society, are prosecuting this subject with an energy which begins to make the wealthy and the highly educated feel uneasy for their rank in the scale of mind.

Whilst, in our country, no jealousy of such a kind can ever exist in the minds of the latter class, the same spirit of improvement is active among the former. We shall endeavor to make our pages the vehicle of information on this interesting subject; and, in an early number of our work, we shall present an historical sketch of mechanics' institutions.

A subject of still higher importance to our country, so large a proportion of whose population are farmers, is the establishment of book-societies and lending libraries for the benefit of the farming

of readers; and we proceed to our labors in the confidence that we shall be aided by all enlightened well-wishers to the best interests of our country.

In the perusal of our pages, our readers will, we hope, keep in mind that our undertaking is one which is entirely new. The path on which we have entered is an untrodden one. No precursor has, by his success or by his failures, done any thing to indicate the course which we ought to pursue. We shall therefore have to commit ourselves, in a great measure, to the guidance of circumstances. All that we can promise, at present, is this, that our attention shall be devoted chiefly to the accumulation of facts, and the diffusion of information. In the arrangement of our work, we shall adhere to the plan adopted in the present number, until a better shall suggest itself.

PARTICULAR NOTICE.

The progress of every literary institution in our country, whether designed for males or females, will be, as far as possible, an object of attention; and we hope that we shall have it in our power to record the advances of improvement in every university, in every college, and in most academies and schools, in the United States. We would here take the opportunity of suggesting to persons who are in possession of information of the kind mentioned, that they will render a service to education, by enabling us to accomplish our purpose.

To guide correspondents in communicating intelligence such as we wish to receive, we respectfully submit the following questions relative to schools, colleges, &c.

1. When, and by whom, was the school or institution founded?
2. Where is the institution situated?
3. What is the number of its buildings, and what is their form, &c.?
4. What are their internal structure and accommodations?
5. What is the number of instructers, and what are their departments?
6. What is the number of students, male and female, and what are their ages?
7. What is the course of study, and what are the books which are used?
8. What is the system or method of instruction, in all its details?
9. What is the number of classes, with their subdivisions?
10. What is the employment for every hour of the day, for every class?
11. What are the regulations of the institution, and what is its discipline?—if a school, what species of punishment, mental and corporeal are used; or when was the latter relinquished?
12. How is the institution supported, and what are the salaries of the instructers?
13. What are the terms of tuition, or the whole expense of education?

We may not always succeed in obtaining matter which will furnish an answer to each of these questions. But, in such cases, even partial information will be acceptable.

Additional information, of any sort, we shall gratefully acknowledge. We shall feel much indebted to any individual who will add a history of the seminary or institution of which he gives us an account, with particular reference to the improvements which, from time to time, have been introduced; so that we may have it in our power to contrast the present condition of our schools and colleges, with that which existed fifty years ago.

'It gives us great satisfaction to state, that a society has been formed for the purpose of promoting the extension of infant schools throughout the country. From what we have said on former occasions respecting these institutions, our readers will infer the high value which we attach to them; and we shall feel much pleasure in reporting their future, and, as we hope and anticipate, *rapid* progress. The meeting at which the society was formed was most numerously and respectably attended, and the subscriptions have been already most liberal. The Marquis of Lansdowne took the chair on the occasion. The first object of the society will be to establish in some central part of the metropolis an institution which, while it dispenses its benefits to the adjoining population, may also serve as a model for imitation, and as a seminary for training and qualifying masters and mistresses to form and superintend schools.'

The Observer for August 1824, contains a statement of the views and the proceedings of the above society's committee.

'The infant-school society has been formed to promote the establishment of schools, or rather asylums for the children of the poor, before the age at which they are capable of engaging in any profitable employment, or at which they may be received into other schools. The proper objects of the society's care, therefore, are children of both sexes, from two to six years of age. Children of this age generally prove, during the working hours of the day, a heavy encumbrance on parents who are obliged to toil hard for a subsistence. One of the society's objects is to lighten the pressure of this inconvenience, and to leave the parents, and particularly the mother, more fully at liberty to pursue some gainful occupation for the common benefit of the family. So convinced are the poor themselves of the advantage of this kind of relief, that in numerous instances Dames'-Schools, as they are called, have been established, in which ten, twenty, or thirty infants are placed under the care of an old woman, by whom they are shut up, perhaps in a close apartment, in order "to be kept out of harm's way" while the parents are at work. And for this accommodation parents are willing to pay from two-pence to four-pence a week for each child. The children are left with the dame, and remain under her care, (with the exception, in most cases, of the dinner hour,) until the evening.

It is now proposed to form infant schools, which shall be capable of receiving from 200 to 300 infants, and which, while they secure the same relief to parents, shall be made subservient to many other purposes, important not only to the children themselves, but through them to their parents, and to the community at large. The plan is, in the first place, to provide an airy and spacious apartment, with a dry, and, if possible, a large play-ground attached to it, where, under

ness, sharpness, or ill-humor, by the waywardness of the children, or by the various difficulties of their task;—whose tone and manner, as well as feelings, shall be uniformly those of parental affection; and who shall be disposed, from a sense of duty, to exercise constant vigilance in marking, and gently counteracting, every instance the children may exhibit of insubordination or disobedience towards their teachers, or of fretfulness, selfishness, unkindness, or violence in their intercourse with each other, and especially in their house of play, which, at that age, must necessarily occupy by far the largest portion of their time. The qualities here stated to be requisite in the masters and mistresses, may deter many benevolent persons from attempting to institute infant schools, under an apprehension that it may prove extremely difficult, if not impossible, to procure suitable instructers; but we are happy to learn, that the past experience of the infant-school committee tends to obviate this ground of hesitation and discouragement. Hitherto individuals have easily been engaged to fill these important offices, whose conduct has been perfectly satisfactory; and the committee see no reason to despair of finding an increasing supply of such superintendents proportioned to the demand for them.

The committee, however, are deeply sensible, and they wish to impress this sentiment on all who may undertake to form infant schools, that it is by instilling into the infant mind the principles of religion, that the effects even of the most perfect discipline can be rendered permanent, and that those higher ends can be secured for which man is formed, and which infinitely transcend in importance all the temporal advantages, great as they are, to be derived from education. To produce, therefore, in the minds of the children, feelings of reverence and gratitude towards their Creator and Redeemer; to impress upon them a sense of their moral responsibility; to convey to them a knowledge of the leading truths of revealed religion; and to familiarise them with the bright examples of piety and benevolence which the scriptures furnish, ought to form leading features of the system of instruction pursued in these infant schools.

It would be difficult duly to estimate the effects on society, and, amongst many others, the diminution of private vice and of public delinquency, which, under the divine blessing, must follow the general adoption and steady prosecution of such a system of infant training. At present we behold the streets, and lanes, and alleys of the metropolis, and other large towns and villages, crowded with squalid children, left, in utter neglect, to wallow in filth, to contract disease, and to acquire habits of idleness, violence, and vice. Almost the first language which many of them learn to lisp, is that of impurity and profaneness. Almost the first science in which many

ject, the committee have resolved to accept the liberal offer of Mr. Joseph Wilson, to employ his infant school in Quaker-street, Spitalfields, for teaching the mechanical parts of the system to such masters or mistresses as may be sent thither for instruction. The committee have engaged Mr. Wilderspin, of the Spitalfields Infant School, to go into the country, at the request of any person intending to open a school according to the method now in practice.'

Mr. Wilderspin, whose name occurs near the close of the above statement, has published a work containing an account of his plans of instruction. Of this book there is a review in the Observer for May 1823. We subjoin some extracts.

Here it may be necessary to warn our readers that, as infant education has hitherto received but little systematic attention, they must expect to find, in the details of Mr. Wilderspin's method, some startling novelties. His work contains many things which seem to deviate very widely from the sober routine of ordinary teaching. It offers nothing, however, which will not be approved of on deliberate reflection. Mr. W. submits to his readers no untried, visionary theory. His whole work is an account of what has been fairly introduced in practice. All his experiments have been submitted to public notice, and, after having been in operation for years, have met with universal approbation.

'Mr. Wilderspin's work is, as it ought to be, chiefly a book of details. These are not particularly our province; and in truth, after all the controversy about Dr. Bell and Mr. Lancaster, about the comparative merits of large schools and small schools, we are pretty much of opinion that, in these matters at least,

"Whate'er is best administer'd is best."

If a schoolmaster is endued with good sense and a spirit of humanity, with conscientiousness of principle, and firmness of mind, we are comparatively little anxious to know what are the minutiæ of his plans; at what hours he opens or closes his school; what grammar he uses; whether he flogs his boys by a steam engine or by hand, or does not flog them at all. There may, and must, be much latitude on secondary points of administration; and, provided men have a right heart and a good understanding, they will not differ essentially in practice, however much they may quarrel about the theory. Still it may not be unamusing or uninstructive to our readers to learn from our author how to perform so arduous a problem as that of managing "three hundred children, from eighteen months to five or six years of age, by one master or mistress," and that so perfectly, Mr. Wilderspin tells us, that a whole day may often elapse

count whatever break a promise; for experience has taught me that most children have good memories; and if you once promise a thing and do not perform it, they will pay very little attention to what you say afterwards. Children are such excellent imitators that I have found they will not only imitate the conduct, but even the voice and expression of the countenance." pp. 148—151.

'Mr. Wilderspin shall now inform us in what manner he drills his little regiment. —

"On opening the school, I cause all the children to stand up, at a word of command, in an orderly manner; after which they all kneel down, when one of them repeats a short prayer, and concludes with the Lord's prayer, the others repeating it after him, similar to a congregation in a place of worship. After which the boy who repeated the prayer gives out a hymn, and the children all sing it. It is pleasing to see how the little creatures will try to sing and keep time: indeed, children generally seem to be very fond of singing, and therefore we teach the little children *to sing the alphabet to a tune*, which they do extremely well, as well as the pence and multiplication tables, which they soon learn. The hymn being concluded, they then commence their lessons, which they do in the following order.

The school is divided into classes: there are two monitors appointed to each class; tins are fixed round the school, with cards in them, the same as are used in national schools; one of the monitors then takes the children up to the cards one at a time, the other monitor keeping the class in order while the lessons are going on. When the monitor who first began has finished half the class, the other one succeeds him, and teaches the remainder; the former monitor taking his place, so that the monitors share the work equally between them.

There is also a general monitor, whose business is to walk round the school, and see that the other monitors do their duty, and put the children's fingers to every letter or word, according to what they are learning. In this manner they go on until every child in the school has said one lesson." pp. 16—18.

'It is no part, however, of Mr. Wilderspin's plan "to make Jack a dull boy," by an overstrained attention and premature mental growth in early life. The following remarks are really very philosophical as well as humane; and we recommend them to the attention of those admirers of precocious intellect, who are quite content to see a child languishing for want of air, exercise, and freedom, a prey to rickets and mesenteric affections, provided that in proportion as its limbs shrink its brain-pan expands; that it compensates by a sickly cerebral developement for an emaciated body; by a forward and flippant tongue for inactive muscles and the equal

play; since quite as much perhaps of its value is in the effort as in the attainment: but with *very little* children, for whom alone our author is legislating, there can be no doubt respecting the judiciousness of his system; and even with elder children it might with advantage be acted upon somewhat more than is usually the habit in schools.

"As an infant school may very properly be called a combination of the school and nursery, the art of pleasing forms a prominent part in the system; and as little children are very apt to be fretful, it becomes expedient to divert as well as teach them; for if children of two years old and under are not diverted, they will naturally cry for the mother; and to have ten or twelve children crying in the school, would put every thing in confusion: but it is possible to have two hundred, or even three hundred, children assembled together, the eldest not more than six years of age, and yet not to hear one of them crying for a whole day. Indeed, I may appeal to the numerous and respectable personages who have visited the school for the truth of this assertion, many of whom have declared, that they could not conceive it possible, that such a number of little children should be assembled together, and all be so happy as they have found them, many of them being so very young. But I can assure the reader, that many of the children who have cried heartily on being sent to school the first day or two, have cried as much on being kept at home after they have been in the school but a very short time; and I am of opinion that when children are absent, it is frequently the fault of their parents. I have had children come to school without their breakfast, because it has not been ready; others have come to school without shoes, because they would not be kept at home while their shoes were mending; and I have had others come to school half dressed, whose parents have either been at work or gossiping, and, when they returned home, have thought that their children had been lost; but to their great surprise and joy, when they applied at the school have found them there.

"Can it be wondered at that little children should dislike to go to school, where in general forty or fifty, or perhaps more, are assembled together in one room, scarcely large enough for one third of that number, and not allowed to speak to, or scarcely look at, each other. In those places I firmly believe many, for the want of proper exercise, become cripples, or have their health much injured, by being kept sitting so many hours; but as the children's health is of the utmost consequence, it becomes necessary to remedy this evil by letting them have proper exercise combined, as much as possible, with instruction; to accomplish which many measures have been tried, but I have found the following to be the most successful, viz.:

distinguished by a pallid countenance, and a wasted body. Of all the expedients that have been proposed for winning the young from habits of idleness and dissipation, none seems to us more promising than the gymnasium.]

When we consider how many minds have long been engaged on the theory and practice of education—minds, too, which were deeply interested in the results of their labors, it is surely not a little remarkable, that for ages they should have overlooked the very first and most essential condition of success;—I mean the necessity of cultivating the body. Thus, if we except the first quarter of the present century, nothing worth naming has been done for the body, since the days of antiquity. Our surprise on this subject would be less, if the striking advantages of training the body had not been demonstrated to us of old, and recorded for our instruction; our surprise would be less too, if we had ever succeeded in education without this training, and if for centuries past we had not been constantly failing in our efforts to perfect human beings without it. This omission cannot be accounted for, unless by the fact, that practice can never be right while principles are wrong. While men remain ignorant of human nature, unacquainted with the structure, functions, and powers, of their own bodies, of their mental and moral capacities, it is not to be believed that they will be fortunate in cultivating these capacities, or wise in directing them to the accomplishment of the high purposes of existence. The great practical question then is, here as everywhere else, what is to be done? Look at the human being, see how he is compounded, consider of what he is capable, and how he is to be affected. While thus occupied, if we have intelligence without prejudice and prepossession, we shall soon perceive that man is made up of a physical, a moral, and an intellectual constitution, all equally and essentially important in themselves considered, and in their mutual relations and reciprocal influence on each other. When this fact, which seems indeed abundantly obvious, is once admitted, we shall of necessity perceive that nature divides education into three branches, and consequently that every plan of instruction, founded on more or fewer divisions of the subject than these, must prove unsuccessful, because not conformable to the arrangements and indications of nature. This inference appears to be admissible, without an experiment to prove its validity; and yet numberless abortive experiments did not, for a series of generations, so far bring to light the cause of these failures, as to occasion its abandonment. Even now the work of reformation is but partially effected.

I beg the reader to put this question to himself, What would an individual be worth to himself or others whose mind whose dispo-

sition, or whose corporeal system—or any two of these only, were educated? His head might be furnished, and his heart well disposed, but he would still need a hand to execute.

Half the literary men of our country have suffered, and are now suffering, from inattention to those intervals of corporeal exercise and mental recreation, without which, no human being devoted to intellectual pursuits, has any right to expect the privileges and immunities of health. But a brighter day begins to dawn on our prospects. The value of physical culture is now admitted by all who have acquired correct views of education; and the practice of various gymnastic seminaries is now demonstrating anew the natural and *intimate relations* and dependence of the three grand divisions *of education*, and teaching us that the preservation and improvement *of the animal* system, must constitute the basis of every plan of education, which is capable of meliorating the condition of our race. For a long and dark period, as it respects education, the gymnastic science and art existed only in the writings of a few authors whose works produced no impression on the public mind.

The first gymnastic school which appeared in Europe, since the decline of the Roman empire, was that of Mr. Saltzmann, in Saxony, in 1786. Since this period, gymnasia have been established in Sweden, Denmark, Russia, Germany, Switzerland, Spain, and France. It was in Denmark that gymnastic exercises were first *considered* in a *national* point of view; and in 1803, the number of these establishments in that country, had already amounted to fourteen, to which three thousand young men resorted; since this time the government have issued an order for allotting a space of two hundred square yards to every public school, for the purpose of gymnastic exercises. In 1810, the gymnastic institution of Berlin was placed under the direction of M. Jahn, through whose zeal and perseverance a taste for manly sports has been widely diffused over Germany.

Captain Clias is professor of gymnastics in Berne: he has superintended the physical education of two thousand pupils, no one of *whom ever* experienced the slightest accident. Very recently the Russian government have directed gymnastic exercises to be introduced into every school in the kingdom, as forming an essential part of education. The teachers of this system, in various parts of Europe, have at length reduced to practice, and confirmed by the most perfect success, the beautiful theories, long since conceived by the best enlightened and most benevolent individuals.

These institutions not only do every thing requisite for the body, but they also furnish indirectly, and not very indirectly neither, immense and indispensable aids to the understanding and the heart.

The gymnasium implies a piece of ground, a building, and such instruments and apparatus as may be necessary for the various exercises of boys and men.

These exercises are numerous and diversified, so as to be suited to the wants and capacities of the pupils, whether young or old, weak or strong.

The pupils visit the gymnasium in the intervals of study; so that instead of losing time, they thus learn how to improve it, for this relaxation of the mind, and change of employment, dispose and enable them to study with interest, assiduity, and effect. The gymnasium does more than this, for it gives those who avail themselves of its resources, healthy, powerful, and active bodies—the basis of all rational and successful cultivation.

The following extract from an amended edition of Buchan's Domestic Medicine, relates to an occurrence, which took place in the gymnasium of Berne.

'An unfortunate youth was presented to Mr. Clias, Professor of Gymnastics, in Berne, by several of his pupils, who requested the favor of his being admitted into his academy. On admission, his strength was ascertained by the dunameter. The pressure of his hands was merely equal to the effort of children of seven or eight years.

His power of drawing, of raising his body, of jumping and leaping, were scarcely perceptible. With very great difficulty, he would run the distance of one hundred steps in one minute and two seconds, after which he had not strength enough to stand. A weight of fifteen pounds, held in his hand, would make him stagger, and a child of seven years could throw him down with the greatest ease. After he had been five months subjected to the gymnastic training, the pressing force of his hands was fifty pounds; with his arms he could raise himself three inches from the ground, and remain suspended three seconds; he leaped three feet in length, ran one hundred and sixty-three steps in a minute, carrying a weight of thirty-five pounds on his shoulders. Finally, in 1817, he climbed, in the presence of several thousand spectators, to the top of an insulated cable of twenty feet in height; he repeated the same manœuvre on a slippery mast, leaped six feet in extent, and ran five hundred paces in two minutes and a half. He now walks five leagues without inconvenience; and after a frightful leanness, his exercise has given him a comfortable share of plumpness; and confirmed health has followed his valetudinary state.

So far as the revival of gymnastics has been adopted in Europe, nothing has been found so effectually to remove the physical imbecility and moral torpor and degeneracy into which many of the nations had fallen, before they were at length awakened to a true sense

slate pencil; thus rendering the motions of the hand, and their natural proneness for action, auxiliaries to the mind and memory. As we can perceive no objection to the practice, it is intended, at this early stage, to introduce easy lessons in drawing, and to encourage by occasional instruction, that turn which is so natural to children, of endeavoring to make graphic delineations of objects which attract their notice. This practice will be continued through the different departments, but limited probably to line drawing, as the main object is to strengthen the judgement with respect to correct proportion, figure, attitude, dimensions, and distance, and, at the same time, to render the hand expert in tracing resemblances. A talent of this kind is deemed to be of far greater importance in a variety of occupations, than is generally imagined. But, should our pupils, toward the conclusion of their course, wish to go more extensively and completely into the art of drawing, they can be gratified by incurring the additional expense occasioned by the employment of a master.

As a relief to the occupations of learning the alphabet, spelling, reading, and writing, and, as beneficial to the mind, even in those early stages of its advancement, it is intended to introduce the first and easiest notions of arithmetic. To learn to count 10, 20, 30, and so on, to 100, is surely as easy to a child at any age, as to learn in succession the 24 letters; and by the aid of sensible objects, the first ideas of addition, subtraction, and other primary rules, may be advantageously introduced, and the little scholar be advancing in mental arithmetic at the same time that he is making progress in the art of spelling or reading. We hold it also to be very possible to mingle with those infantile pursuits, some instructions in geography or topography, so far at least as to smooth the introduction to that branch of study, on their admission to the higher departments.

There is still another branch of instruction which it is in contemplation to introduce into our lowest department, and which, but for the expense and fatigue it may involve, might be rendered highly profitable to the understanding, moral feelings, and dispositions of our youthful charge. I mean that knowledge which may be so readily and effectually communicated through the medium of well-chosen pictures. Not only several of the branches of Natural History, but a great variety of the most interesting objects and scenery of the globe, and many of the operations and productions of art, may thus be rendered intelligible to very young capacities; while at the same time the sentiments of love and reverence for the Deity, of kindness and benevolence towards the various objects of his bountiful creation, and an utter reprobation of cruelty, revenge, and most of the evil passions, may be strongly inculcated. Transparent paintings, executed for this purpose, would be most desirable,

of monitors of one of the largest Lancasterian schools that has ever been erected; and it can scarcely be doubted that a system of instruction which constantly limits the attention of one instructer or monitor to a class of eight or ten scholars, and thus facilitates a rapid continuation of individual exercise, is the most favorable for implanting habits of attention, clearness of comprehension, and accuracy of execution, which has ever been devised.

Geography, which, in the lower department, can only be considered as an amusement, will be pursued in this, upon that system which can alone be effectual—a constant reference to the maps. Considering it improper in the early study of geography, to mingle it, as is often done, with scraps of history, politics, manners, and peculiarities of nations, we shall confine our boys of the junior department, to an acquaintance with geographical features alone, and shall use scarcely any other books than those which serve as guides to the maps. A plentiful supply of maps will of course be considered as of the first importance.

English grammar will be commenced in this department, and continued as far as the syntax of our language. It matters not how early, after they have learned to read fluently, children begin the study of grammar, provided they are taught strictly upon the principles of analysis, and advanced no faster than their *understandings* will carry them. To distinguish the alphabet into vowels and consonants, and to select from a few plain sentences, all the nouns, verbs, and adjectives, are exercises which very young children can soon be taught to take pleasure in, and to give good reasons for the judgements which they form. As a mental exercise therefore, as well as the means of laying the foundation of an important branch of knowledge, the study of grammar should, we think, be thus early introduced.

Reading and elocution will receive due attention in the junior class, and it is within the scope of our intention, to extend to the pupils of this department, the advantage to be derived from an illustration of natural and sensible objects by pictures and other illustrations.

In the senior department, the preceding studies will be perfected. Arithmetic will be extended to its highest rules and applications; geography to the theory and construction of maps, to its dependencies upon, and connection with, astronomy, history, and antiquities; with geology and mineralogy, with climate, seasons, the productions of the earth, and the varieties and habits of the human race.

Grammar will be advanced so as to include all the minutiæ of syntax, prosody, punctuation, style, &c. and the important subject of our own language will be pursued by the study of rhetoric and

I shall refrain from dwelling longer on the literary pursuits of this seminary; but I cannot dismiss my subject, without adverting to one branch of instruction, which it is equally the wish, I believe, of the trustees and principals, to establish, as a constituent part of our general plan, from a conviction of its advantages to the bodily vigor, and of course to the intellectual strength and activity of our pupils. I allude to *gymnastics*. For myself, I have long been convinced, that too little attention is paid to the physical education of our children. Independently of that just and full developement which symmetry and beauty require, the enjoyment of *a sound mind* is so evidently connected with *a sound body* as to demand the vigilance of parents and preceptors. I cannot so well express my own opinions on this subject as I find them in the letter of a medical friend in London, to whom I communicated the first prospectus of this institution. "Your new High-School appears to me to bid fair to be of present and lasting benefit to the state, and from the respectability of the share-holders, I presume that it is already popular. A subject of great importance, connected with the physical part of education, has recently claimed some part of my attention; I mean gymnastics; at least that part of the art which is absolutely necessary for the full developement, use, and vigor of the muscles of the body. From more attention than has hitherto been paid to this subject in our schools, I am fully persuaded that many diseases of the chest might be prevented in youth, the organs concerned in digestion kept in more regular and heathful action, diseases of their structure obviated, and remote affections of the brain, &c. guarded against,—such as are supposed to originate by sympathy with them. Exercises of this kind produce a correct attitude and progression, which add materially to our comfort, not only in the facility of undergoing, but also of relieving the muscular fatigue arising from our necessary exertions. Diseases of the bones, particularly of the spine, and of the machinery connected with them, which become more numerous with the increase and the spread of wealth, would, in a great measure, be obviated. Add to which that they will assuredly promote intellectual vigor, control of passion, and the developement of correct feelings."

So far as exercises of this nature can be introduced with advantage, we shall take particular pleasure in promoting them; and we anticipate no difficulty in finding among our boys those who will be willing and qualified to become monitors, in instructing others in the arts of leaping, climbing, pitching, and in other varieties of muscular skill and exertion.

But a still more interesting branch of manual exercise, is that which is requisite in the use of tools, in the easier parts of carpentry, joinery, casting, turning, &c. We contend for the advantage

of enjoyment as well as of improvement, another object of no mean importance is attained. That this object is too generally overlooked, appears to be not the fault of the pupils, but of the cold and irksome system usually pursued in the developement of young minds:—a system in itself sufficiently odious, even in the earlier stages of our country's progress, when little was required of scholars beyond an imperfect knowledge of the elementary branches; but now become oppressive and injurious, from the increased field of knowledge, which is presented to the learner, by the discoveries and acquisitions of the last half century.—We find, accordingly, that children who are taught on the old plan, are kept constantly on the stretch to obtain that degree of information which the state of society demands. They are pressed, when in school, and when out of it, with lessons which they do not understand, and of course cannot relish. Learning accordingly becomes a toil, and the spring of life, which should be gay and active, is clouded by unnecessary hardship, and worn by worse than fruitless cares; and, after all this waste of comfort, the progress of the pupil, in a vast majority of instances, is slow and superficial. It is one of the worst faults of this system that children, particularly boys, are treated more like felons, than like beings who err from immaturity of judgement; and, one leading object of our establishment being to render our pupils happy, as well as intelligent, we abolish all rewards and punishments, which tend to excite bad passions, and we appeal only to reason and the kinder affections. Corporeal punishment we deem fit only for the savage, whose dread of present pain, is generally his strongest motive; or for the slave, whose soul is debased by bondage:—it should be banished from every family; and our experience justifies our assertion, that it is totally unnecessary in school.

The common system throws the burden of teaching the simplest subjects, as well as the most intricate, solely upon the instructer: In a large school, he must possess ubiquity; otherwise a considerable number of his classes must be idle, or worse than idle, most of their time; his attention must be frequently distracted from the class in exercise; and he must use great personal exertions to produce a small effect. The monitorial system, on the other hand, while it gives the school the same portion of time and attention from the instructer, by furnishing him with numerous assistants, enables him to exercise a more close inspection over the whole, and to explain and enforce his lessons, with perspicuity and method. On the plan pursued in other schools, every pupil must have much time unoccupied, and of course prove a hindrance to others. By the monitorial arrangement every moment is so fully and pleasantly employed, that even the mischief of a bad scholar is confined to the little class of four or five about him. All skill, manual and mental, depends on

INSTRUCTER'S REPORT TO THE TRUSTEES.

GENTLEMEN,

IN compliance with your request, I shall endeavor to present a detailed account of the mode of instruction which has been pursued in our school. But while I feel the difficulty of doing this satisfactorily, I am encouraged to make the attempt from a conviction that many, even of our proprietors, have very indistinct ideas of the course of instruction pursued, and therefore cannot effectually co-operate with me in the important work of educating their children. It was a general opinion, when this school was established, that every thing was prepared, the system perfected, and the instructer only required to *teach* by the rules prescribed. You are aware that nothing was prepared, that no system was formed, and that the mere act of *teaching* was the least part of the labor required of the instructer. It had only been determined that the school should be conducted on the united plans of Lancaster and Pestalozzi; that is, on the *Monitorial* and *Inductive systems*. But the former had never been applied to the higher branches, in this country; and we knew little or nothing of the other. (Note 1.) I mention this fact, because, in an estimate of our success, it should be considered, that, besides teaching all the branches usually taught in our best private seminaries to about three times their average number of pupils, we have actually been compelled to make books, (2.) prepare lessons in manuscript, and create our system. This will account to some parents for any delay or indecision which they may have noticed in our movements, and for our non-compliance in some respects with their wishes—wishes, however, which were relinquished with a cheerfulness and courtesy for which I am truly grateful.

To make a fair experiment of the new system, it should be tried upon children who have never been instructed upon any other; children, in fact, only three or four years old. But as this could not be, the doors were thrown open to all ages, and the school was composed of pupils from four to eighteen years of age. It was impossible, therefore, to prepare lessons for only one branch first, and then for the next, as the children advanced; for every pupil expected to advance from the point she was supposed to have reached at other schools, and this expectation was in most cases gratified. The united system, then, was to be applied to writing, reading, spelling, grammar, geography, arithmetic, astronomy, French, Latin, and natural philosophy, to say nothing of subsidiary exercises. That this could not be done perfectly must be presumed; and the

tor then proceeds to the seventh class, and gives them a word from their lesson in the same manner, which they write. She then goes to the sixth, fifth, and so down to the first class, giving each a word from their lesson. By this time the eighth class have written their word, perhaps twice, she gives them another, and then does the same to the seventh, and others, as before. While the slates are filling in this way, a class of children, who are good spellers and good writers, are stationed, one or two in each class, to inspect the slates, and correct errors and badly formed letters. When the slates are filled, they are all cleaned at once; and the *dictation* again commences. In this way, the difficult words of the lesson, are all written, and exhibited to the eye; and it is impossible for any child to avoid going over her lesson at least once. The despatch with which words are thus written, may be calculated from the fact that the monitor of dictation never stops, but goes to each class, in constant rotation, until the slates are filled.

After the words have been written in this manner, the children leave their seats at a given signal, and form classes of from four to six, around scholars called *spelling monitors*. These are the best spellers in the school, and are selected as follows. At the end of each fortnight, all the spelling classes are formed in one line, and reviewed by the master. They are required to spell every word in the lessons of the preceding fortnight, and to take precedence as they spell well or ill. After this exercise is ended, the highest in the line are taken for monitors, the ensuing fortnight: the four or six next to them form the highest class; the four next, the next in rank; and so on, to the lowest. When the classes have formed around their spelling monitors, the lesson is spelled in the following manner. The monitor pronounces a word distinctly, the highest in the class pronounces it after her, to show that she knows what it is, and then spells it. If she mistakes, the next points out her error, then spells the whole word and "goes up." Then the child who first missed is obliged to spell the word as corrected, that she may be profited by losing her place. As the number of children in a class is very small, each is obliged to spell a great many words, and must necessarily pay close attention to the words spelled by her classmates.

As soon as the child can write words of four or five letters, she is required to read. The best readers are selected for monitors, by an examination similar to that for spelling monitors; and these reading monitors are taught by the master. The rest of the scholars are divided into small classes of five or six; and, leaving their seats, form a semi-circle around the monitor. The children are allowed to correct the reader, and "go above her" for so doing; and the monitor is required to read often to her class. The small number in a class affords each child an opportunity of practising much; and

The beginner is shown a heap of cards, on each of which is written a word. She is required to assort or class the confused heap. She finds it impossible. She is desired to pick out every word that is the *name* of any thing. This she will do with ease and pleasure. The heap is greatly reduced. She is desired to pick out such as imply *doing* something. She will do this, and so with all the other classes of words. She may then perform the same exercise in a book. She begins to study her grammar, but advances not a step without putting in practice what she learns. It need not be said that before children can parse, they can often speak and write correctly. The constant use of a slate and pencil naturally leads to written communications with each other. Children six years old write very good letters to their playmates; but, as these loose compositions afford no good opportunity for correction, I generally tell the young class a short story, and require them to write it on paper in the best manner they can. These I correct, and return to them with suitable advice. This method relieves them from the intolerable labor of writing, when they have nothing to write about. The compositions of the upper classes are of a different order.

The process of teaching geography is explained quite fully in the text book used by the scholars. This is to children a pleasing study, and those who are but five or six years old may be usefully engaged in it. A child that can imitate a letter, can imitate the outline of a country—roughly and badly, to be sure, at first—but sufficiently well to fix in her mind the prominent features of it. Her lesson requires her to find the prominent objects of the map she is drawing. She finds them, marks them on her little map, feels acquainted with them, and proud of the acquaintance. She begins to measure distances, to compare sizes, and in fact to draw. The improvement has been astonishing in this branch; and, to some of the children, it is as easy to draw an outline of any country from memory, as to make any letter of the alphabet. Their geography is entirely practical; and the first part, all that has yet been printed, is confined to the locality of places, and this is nearly all of modern geographies that the memory retains. Beginners draw small maps from common school atlases. After they have drawn each several times, they draw maps of various countries on a large scale. There are but four children in the school who do not study geography.

As soon as a child has learned to shape and join letters correctly on the slate, she is required to write on paper. The monitors are under the care of the master; and, after they have written a copy, are dispersed to their various classes. Writers on paper are classed according to their proficiency. The master, besides taking the oversight of all, has one or two classes under his particular care. Monitors are placed over the rest; and, in most cases, two to each

soon as they please, the making of pens, which enslaves masters of common schools, and is a mystery to most adult females, is a very simple operation in our school. It is never necessary for me to mend one pen. A child who mends her own pen, does not write so well for it, at first; but she soon recovers, and acquires an independence of others, which those only can appreciate who cannot make a good pen.

The teaching of Latin was early attempted; but the want of suitable books was a serious obstacle. One introductory book had been published in France. This the instructer translated and used in manuscript. Its object was to remove the disgust which usually attends the study of the Latin grammar. The words of an easy reading book, were classed under their appropriate heads of grammar. Thus, all words ending and declined like *penna*, were placed under *penna*, which was declined at length, as a model for the rest. So with all the nouns of the other declensions, verbs, &c. &c. The class were required to decline *penna*, and every day learn a number of the words of that class, declining each, and giving its English meaning. They also wrote every word on the slate, and on paper. In two or three months, the class became familiarly acquainted with the essentials of the grammar, and a vocabulary of about three thousand Latin roots. The next step was to read the book whose vocabulary had been thus previously studied. This was mere amusement for the pupils. But here our French guide failed; and I had not time to prosecute the plan. I could only pursue the ordinary mode, employing monitors; for a second class had already commenced. The first class has read to me the Historia Sacra, Epitome of Grecian History, Cesar, and part of Virgil. The second class instead of Cesar have just commenced Jacob's Latin Reader, a more suitable book; and both classes have turned into Latin from thirty to eighty pages of the Latin Tutor. Almost every translation has been *written* as well as read, and corrected by the master and monitors. This obliged every scholar to go over the whole lesson, and was a good exercise in English composition also.

I need not here discuss the utility of teaching Latin to females. I was requested to do so by the parents, and believing that it would be a key to the language of every science they might study, a great step towards the acquisition of French, and its other daughters of the south of Europe, and an invaluable aid in the right understanding of English, I opposed no objections, except where the children were too young to begin the study, while the best mode of teaching it is still so imperfectly understood. The *useful*, and not the merely critical part of Latin, is all I shall endeavor to teach, being persuaded that the time of females may be better employed, than in

plete course of lectures has been given to the highest class; and, in all cases, the pupils have performed experiments with their own hands. Indeed, one has acted as monitor while the rest have partly reviewed the instructer's lessons. From seven hundred to one thousand dollars' worth of the best apparatus has already been purchased, with the surplus income of the school. Until the establishment of our school, no private seminaries presumed to illustrate their little text-books of natural philosophy with proper apparatus. It is a pleasing circumstance that several have already felt the necessity of following our example; but the inferiority of individual means to those of a corporation, and the flourishing state of our income, will still secure to us precedence in this respect. (Note 3.)

A class in mineralogy has just commenced its operations, with ample materials; for, in addition to our already valuable collection, our cabinet has been unexpectedly enriched by a very valuable donation of foreign minerals, from William M'Clure, Esq., late of Paris, a gentleman distinguished for his indefatigable geological researches, and his zeal in the cause of human improvement. The minerals are spread before the class, examined, compared, and analysed. Besides this, each child is furnished with a specimen of the mineral under consideration, to form the basis of a little cabinet of her own.

I shall omit many exercises subsidiary to those already described, such as reading, spelling, saying the multiplication and other tables all together, an exercise which has a powerful influence upon their habits of order and attention, and is a rapid and pleasing method of reviewing many exercises; for, many pupils who are afraid to speak alone, are emboldened by numbers; and it is no more difficult for the master's ear to detect an error in the multitude of voices, than for a musician to discover a discord in a choir. These exercises also have a powerful effect in banishing that monotony and *ennui* which so often reign in schools conducted on the common plan.

After this tedious enumeration of my labors, you will be surprised to hear that not the least important branch remains to be mentioned, I mean *general instruction*. It has been my incessant care on every occasion, and on every subject within the scope of my own knowledge, to inculcate useful information. To enable myself to lose no opportunity of doing this, my intercourse with my pupils has been as familiar as that of a parent. No magisterial dignity has prevented the approach of the most timid child; and a perfect knowledge of all their little peculiarities has been the pleasing consequence. I am aware that such a state of things is supposed to be incompatible with the rigid discipline expected in large schools; but the experience of two years has satisfied me that it is as yet unnecessary to

on slate or paper, for instance, every child is engaged *all the time*. To this should be added the extraordinary attention required in such small classes, compared with that of large ones. If, in a school of only eighty pupils, the advantage is so much in our favor, it will be doubled in a school of one hundred and sixty, and so on.

(To be continued.)

REVIEWS.

A Sermon delivered on the twenty-fifth anniversary of the Boston Female Asylum, Sept. 23, 1825. By F. W. P. Greenwood. Boston, 1825. pp. 20.

The Duties of an American citizen. Two discourses delivered in the First Baptist Meetinghouse in Boston, on Thursday, April 7, 1825, the day of Public Fast. By Francis Wayland, Jr. Second Edition. Boston, 1825. pp. 48.

We take up these publications together, not because they are naturally connected by subject or by occasion—the topics of a political fast can have little in common with a charity for female orphans—but because they afford a striking illustration of the state of the times, and of the strong hold which the great subject of education has upon the attention of society. They indicate how much it is a universally engrossing concern, when occasions of every sort are caused to bend to it, and topics of the most opposite character are made to meet in this. A few years since, the anniversary of an asylum for female orphans, would have merely called for an exposition of the duty and beauty of charity, in order to warm the hearts of the audience to an immediate almsgiving. But now, it opens before the preacher the vast field of universal education; and he incites the hearers to high emotions and large views, and makes them to see in the occasion, not only an opportunity of relieving a few defenceless children, but one link in that lengthening chain of civilisation and happiness, which is yet to bind together all the scattered families of man. Time was when the recurrence of the annual fast led not a step beyond exhortations to repentance, and denunciation of sin. If politics were made the theme, it was a denunciation of the government or the opposition, and led the mind but very little higher than the ordinary newspaper disquisitions of the week. But now, the preacher extends himself to a survey of the general politics of the world, and the prospects they

letters are reviving with liberty ; and among many of the uncivilised tribes of the world, whose children are learning to throw aside the savage, and attach themselves to books and arts. By this great and growing attention to the subject, is evinced the universal persuasion that education is to form the strength and hope of the future ; and thus the way is preparing, we devoutly trust, for the day, when the physical force of the nations shall be subject to the intellectual, and the affairs of men be ruled by appeal to reason rather than to arms.

The share which the pulpit is to have in effecting the improvements which we anticipate, cannot be small ; and we have been rejoiced to find, in every quarter, a disposition among the preachers of religion to give their effective aid. And this not only indirectly, by their influence on the general standard and tone of morals, but directly, by express discussion of the subject and by applying the authority and principles of our faith to this particular object. We do not see, indeed, a good reason why any topic connected with the character and improvement of man, upon which it is necessary that public opinion be rightly guided and healthy, should not be distinctly urged from the desk, for the purpose of influencing and directing that public opinion. We should suppose, that the wider the range of topics the preacher could bring into connection with the truths and sanctions of revelation, the more widely would he be able to extend the authority of that revelation, and cause the leaven of its principles to be diffused throughout the whole texture and mass of human concerns.

We should be glad to meet frequent examples of as sensible and powerful exposition of this important subject, as are presented in the discourses before us. Mr. Greenwood, in his usual plain, but beautiful and energetic simplicity, and with a happy adaptation of his text, insists that education should be extended to all classes, that it should be a religious education, and that the consequences would be incalculably beneficial, alike to the individuals and to the community. Isaiah liv. 3. 'ALL thy children shall be TAUGHT OF THE LORD ; and GREAT shall be the PEACE of thy children.' Under the first head, he argues the equal right of every individual to receive the highest cultivation which his circumstances in life may allow, and puts down with indignation the notion that any class of rational beings is born to a merely physical existence and perpetual servitude. 'A more selfish, pernicious, disgraceful principle, in whatever terms it may be muffled up, never insulted human nature, nor degraded human society. It is the leading principle of despotism, the worst feature of aristocracy, and a profane contradiction of that indubitable Word, which has pronounced all men to be brethren, and, in every thing which relates to their common nature,

'Under these limitations, education may be made as liberal as circumstances will permit, without the fear of pernicious consequences. I will put it to the experience of any one of you, if in your intercourse with the poor of various conditions, you have not been better served, and treated with more honesty, fairness, kindness, and deference, by those who have possessed a more than usual share of intellectual impovement, than by those who could hardly tell their right hand from their left. I ask, whether there is not more cunning, deception, falsehood, pilfering, and licentiousness, among the ignorant, than among the well informed. If so, the plea for a well conducted religious education of the children of the poor and the abandoned, is fully admitted.'

Under the last head, he speaks of the consequences of this universal diffusion of knowledge, in promoting real prosperity, in securing the public order, in sustaining free institutions, and exciting to active benevolence ; as also in providing the surest happiness for individual men. In illustrating this part of the subject he draws a picture of the sources of our country's growing greatness, in strong contrast with the despotisms of Europe, which we greatly desire to transfer to our pages ; but which, having been introduced into most of the papers of the day, has become too well known to need citation.

Mr. Wayland's discourses are of a high order of excellence, and have been so extensively circulated and admired as not to need our attestation to their justness of thought and eloquence of language. We do not refer to them that we may praise them, but because, though political in their general character, their speculations are all brought to bear upon the subject of education, and to make way for a powerful appeal to his countrymen to do their part in the diffusion of knowledge and virtue.

He proposes to inquire what are the duties of a citizen of his country, in an age like this, and in a state of society like ours. In order to this, he regards him as a member of the universal family of man, and this nation as one of the great family of civilised nations. He therefore first casts his eye abroad upon the world. He marks its political aspect. He sees the characteristic feature of the times to be, that division which is taking place between 'the governments of law and governments of will.' He observes that the cause of human improvement is identified with that of liberal government, and is checked and thrown back by arbitrary government: that of one of these two great parties, upon whose struggle for ascendency the destinies of mankind seem to hang, America stands first;—leader and head, example and hope, of that party, which maintains the right of all to take part in the public concerns, and to appoint those who shall manage them, and which thus supports the great rights, and anticipates the greatest happiness and improvement of man. For a nation to take the lead in so responsible

love right, to hate wrong, and to seek each other's welfare, as the children of one common parent; that they control the baleful passions of the human heart, and thus make men proficients in the science of self government; and finally, that they teach him to aspire after conformity to a Being of infinite holiness, and fill him with hopes infinitely more purifying, more exalting, more suited to his nature than any other, which this world has ever known; are facts incontrovertible as the laws of philosophy, or the demonstrations of mathematics. Evidence in support of all this can be brought from every age in the history of man, since there has been a revelation from God on earth. We see the proof of it every where around us. There is scarcely a neighborhood in our country where the Bible is circulated, in which we cannot point you to a very considerable portion of its population, whom its truths have reclaimed from the practice of vice, and taught the practice of whatsoever things are pure and honest and just and of good report.

'That this distinctive and peculiar effect is produced upon every man to whom the gospel is announced, we pretend not to affirm. But we do affirm, that besides producing this special renovation to which we have alluded, upon a part, it in a most remarkable degree elevates the tone of moral feeling throughout the whole of a community. Wherever the Bible is freely circulated, and its doctrines carried home to the understandings of men, the aspect of society is altered; the frequency of crime is diminished; men begin to love justice, and to administer it by law; and a virtuous public opinion, that strongest safeguard of right, spreads over a nation the shield of its invisible protection.

'To sum up in a few words what has been said. If we would see the foundations laid broadly and deeply, on which the fabric of this country's liberties shall rest to the remotest generations; if we would see her carry forward the work of political reformation, and rise the bright and morning star of freedom over a benighted world; let us elevate the intellectual and moral character of every class of our citizens, and specially let us imbue them thoroughly with the principles of the gospel of Jesus Christ.'

We would cite, had we room for it, the fine passage which illustrates the *intellectual* influence of the scriptures. But we must be satisfied with a single paragraph of the peroration.

'When I reflect that some of you who now hear me will see fifty millions of souls enrolled on the census of these United States; when I think how small a proportion our present efforts bear to the pressing wants of this mighty population, and how soon the period in which those wants can be supplied will have forever elapsed; when moreover I reflect how the happiness of man is interwoven with the destinies of this country;—I want language to express my conceptions of the importance of the subject; and yet I am aware that those conceptions fall far short of the plain, unvarnished truth. When I look forward over the long tract of coming ages, the dim shadows of unborn nations pass in solemn review before me, and each, by every sympathy which binds together the whole brotherhood of man, implores this country to fulfil that destiny to which she has been summoned by an all-wise Providence, and save a sinking world from temporal misery and eternal death.'

One cannot be unimpressed with statements which are thus made, of the prospect before us, and the advancement of the human race, especially on this continent. It is not easy to exaggerate on this subject, or to speak in tones of too great confidence or of too solemn warning. 'The progress of America is no longer problematical. She MUST continue, for centuries to come, to advance with giant steps in the career of improvement.' 'She is marked out as the

the general feeling, and thoroughly imbue with it the public sentiment. Let those who are forming the minds and hearts of the young be persuaded to esteem this their great care. The education of the people, of their minds, affections, and wills—the formation of their intellectual, moral, and religious principles and habits—is that upon which depends, under God, the very existence of our institutions, and the certainty that any of the promises of the future, will not be utterly disappointed. And we shall think ourselves abundantly recompensed for the toils of our present undertaking, if we shall be able to aid in giving a right direction to the inquiries and experiments which are now so extensively making on this most important subject.

Monitorial Instruction. An Address pronounced at the opening of the New-York High-School; with notes and illustrations. By John Griscom. New-York, 1825. 12mo. pp. 216.

The preface to this address contains the following information. 'The fund, by which that ground was purchased, and the edifice erected, was raised by a scrip stock, in shares of one hundred dollars; and for the purpose of more general accommodation, these were each divided into shares of twenty-five dollars, the subscribers having the privilege, in preference to others, of introducing their children and wards. A charter was granted by the Legislature, and the concerns of the school are under the direction of a board of trustees chosen annually by the stockholders.'

Dr. Griscom's book is one of the most valuable works on primary and preparatory education, that has been published in this country. It is of a very unassuming character; it is plain and practical throughout, and embodies more useful information on the subject of instruction, than is to be found in any single volume with which we are acquainted. It is precisely such a work as the spirit of our times seems to require. It bespeaks a mind zealously devoted to education, but not led away by fanciful theories; ardent in the desire of improvement, but strictly regulated by the known results of actual experiment. We think it a circumstance of congratulation with every friend to the progress of education, and with every intelligent parent in New-York, that the superintendence of instruction, in that city, is committed to an individual so peculiarly qualified for the charge.

The address opens with appropriate introductory and general remarks, and then proceeds to a brief, but comprehensive view, of

constantly occupied, without fatiguing their attention for too long a time with one thing. Even their incessant restlessness and activity are turned to account by the discipline and exercises of the school. It is hardly possible to enter the school without perceiving that what is commonly called a love of mischief in children, is in fact a love of mental occupation. They are taught with the utmost simplicity, and their good feelings and affections are called forth by the unwearied tenderness and parental kindness of their instructers. Wilful and continued disobedience is scarcely known. In short, the experiment which has been made in the introductory department has been more successful than could have been anticipated; and the trustees recommend to the society with the fullest confidence to entrust their children to the institution at a very early age.

The studies pursued in the Junior Department, are, Spelling, Reading, Penmanship, Elocution, Arithmetic, Geography, sketching Maps, English Grammar, Linear Drawing, and Composition. The monitorial method has triumphed over all the obstacles it had to encounter in the first organisation of this school. The Trustees are satisfied that a fair comparison between this school, and any one conducted upon different principles, will evince the great superiority of its method of instruction over every other that has been tried.

'In the senior department,' say the Trustees, 'all who enter the school do not intend to remain for the same period of time—and many who leave it expect to enter immediately upon the active business of life. It is very plain that these circumstances must require corresponding classifications of scholars and of studies.

Some pursuits are nevertheless common to all. All the scholars in this department attend to Spelling, Writing, Arithmetic, Geography, Elocution, Composition, Drawing, Philosophy, Natural History, and Book-keeping. Philosophy and Natural History are taught chiefly by lectures and by questions; and these branches, together with Elocution and Composition, are severally attended to one day in every week.

The usual Latin and Greek Classics are read, such as Cesar, Cicero, Virgil, Horace, Xenophon, and Homer. A large class study French, and a few pursue Spanish; classes of from 6 to 20 are engaged in Book-keeping, and in the various branches of Mathematics, such as Mensuration, Geometry, Trigonometry, and Algebra.

The Trustees might particularise some bright examples of extraordinary acquirement, but they forbear to do so—and content themselves with saying that the general progress of both the Senior and Junior Departments affords the most conclusive evidence that the Monitorial System of Instruction is capable of being adapted to the higher as well as the lower branches of education.

It is the opinion of those who have had the most experience, and the best means of judging, that they have never known so great proficiency made in the same period of time, as has been made in the upper departments of the High School.

In all these studies the method of mutual instruction has been brought into operation, and has satisfied the sanguine expectations which were formed of its efficiency."

The New-York High-School has, we think, made a very auspicious commencement. It has early taken an honorable place among useful seminaries; and we hope it will long continue to enlighten the youth of that great city, and usher them into active life with every preparation for becoming useful citizens, and benefactors to their country.

and combined with such interesting topographical sketches as might serve for rallying points to the historical narrative. Local feelings of an exclusive character are to be deprecated; but local feelings of the proper kind must, after all, be the germ of patriotism. The true patriotic spirit is but an expansion of the feelings, with which the virtuous ever regard the place of their birth and education.

The work before us is liable to the objection which we have expressed at the beginning of this article. Being designed for school use, it has been limited to the common size of school-books. The history of the United States is a subject too extensive for such limits; and the consequence is, that when, by a judicious arrangement, the youth of New-York might have been furnished with a full history of their native state or city, they are presented with a mere outline of the history of the whole country.

The chief objection, however, which we make to this work is its brevity. In other respects the book is well-arranged and well-written. Better that young persons should have the knowledge it contains, than none; but better still that the labors of the writer should be employed on a satisfactory historical account of the state or of the city of New-York,—a work which would be highly useful, and, we think, no less acceptable.

INTELLIGENCE.

ACADEMY OF EDUCATION IN FRANCE.

In France, the training of teachers has been considered as having so essential a connection with the progress of education as to have engaged a considerable number of the most enlightened and philanthropic gentlemen of the capital, to form a society for the express purpose of advancing the art of teaching. Its title is 'La Societé pour le perfectionnement des methodes d'enseigment.' At a general meeting of this society held the 5th of March, 1822, several discourses were made illustrating the objects of the association. and enforcing their importance. The following extract from one of these discourses, gives us an account of the origin of the society.

'Most of the founders of this society belong to another, which it would be unbecoming on this occasion to eulogise, since a great number amongst you are in its ranks. I shall only remark, that the '*Society for Elementary Instruction*,' has restored to France the method of *mu-*

GENERAL KNOWLEDGE SOCIETY.

A provisional committee has been formed for establishing, in England, a society to be designated the 'Society for promoting General Knowledge;' the object of which shall be the publication of approved works in the various branches of useful knowledge, especial regard being had to their religious and moral tendency. The price is to be so low as to bring them within the reach of the public in general. There is reason to believe that a similar institution will be formed at Paris. The works to be published by this society will include religious and moral, historical, scientific, and miscellaneous. Every thing exclusive, whether in religion or politics, it is stated, will be carefully shunned. Cheap reprints of standard and unexceptionable works will form a prominent part of the society's labors. In some cases, however, new treatises will be required.

It is intended that extensive and varied knowledge shall be made subservient to the interests of religion and virtue, and a powerful counteraction thus afforded to the pernicious publications at present in fearfully wide circulation. The books of the Society, it is added, will be peculiarly adapted, both in matter and price, to mechanic's institutes, and it is hoped, will turn to good account the appetite for reading so widely diffused and so rapidly increasing. [*Ch. Obs. Aug.* 1825.

NEW PLAN OF INSTRUCTION.

[The following statement relating to a plan of instruction for the poor, is from the Monthly Repository of August, 1825. The experiment here alluded to was made at Linfield, in the county of Sussex, England.]

'Some benevolent individuals, conceiving that the labor of children might be made to pay for their education, have united and built school-rooms, at the above place, of sufficient capacity for 200 boys and 200 girls During one part of the day, (from nine to twelve) the children are to be taught reading, writing, and arithmetic. In the other part, (from two to five,) the boys will be instructed (in classes) in agricultural labor, when the weather permits, and in some of the most useful mechanical arts; while the girls will be employed in needlework, the duties of the household and dairy, making butter, knitting, straw-plaiting, and, in short, every species of domestic industry that will contribute to make them valuable servants. At the commencement, the parents or friends of each child will pay threepence a week for its education; but the projectors of the undertaking are confident that experience will soon confirm their theory, that the produce of three hours' labor of each child per day, will pay the expenses of the establishment; in which case the weekly charge will altogether cease.—

he would have seen the spot of earth which he had destined and bequeathed to the use and benefit of his country, as the site for an university, still bare and barren.'

Proceedings of Congress on the above subject.

On motion of Mr. RUGGLES, the part of the President's Message which relates to a National University, was referred to a select Committee, with instructions, if expedient, to report the principles on which it ought to be established, and a plan of organisation that will embody these principles.

EDUCATION IN THE STATE OF NEW-YORK.

Extract from Gov. Clinton's Message, Jan. 3, 1826.

THE first duty of government, and the surest evidence of good government, is the encouragement of education. A general diffusion of knowledge is the precursor and protector of republican institutions, and in it we must confide as the conservative power that will watch over our liberties and guard them against fraud, intrigue, corruption, and violence. In early infancy, education may be usefully administered. In some parts of Great Britain, infant schools have been successfully established, comprising children from two to six years of age, whose tempers, hearts, and minds are ameliorated, and whose indigent parents are enabled, by these means, to devote themselves to labor without interruption or uneasiness. Our common schools embrace children from five to fifteen years old, and continue to increase and prosper. The appropriations for last year from the school fund amount to $80,670; and an equivalent sum is also raised by taxation in the several school districts, and is applied in the same way. The capital or fund is $1,330,000 which will be in a state of rapid augmentation from sales of the public lands and other sources. And it is well ascertained that more than 420,000 children have been taught in our common schools during the last year. The sum distributed by the state is now too small, and the general fund can well warrant an augmentation to $120,000 annually. An important change has taken place in the free schools of New-York. By an arrangement between the corporation of that city and the trustees of the Free-School society, these establishments are to be converted into common schools, to admit the children of the rich as well as of the poor, and by this annihilation of factitious distinctions, there will be a strong incentive for the display of talents, and a felicitous accommodation to the genius of republican government. In these seminaries, the monitorial system has been always used, and it has in other institutions been applied with complete success to the higher branches of education.

Our system of instruction, with all its numerous benefits, is still, however, susceptible of great improvement. Ten years of the life of a child may now be spent in a common school. In two years, the ele-

chase ground, and erect a building of dimensions sufficient to accommodate 400 scholars.

The trustees have accordingly purchased a lot 72 feet by 100, in Crosby, near Spring-street, in the vicinity of the edifice for Boys, on which they have erected a brick building of three stories. 44 feet by 60. The cost of the ground, the building, and its furniture, will be about $18,000.

MR. OWEN'S SCHOOL AT NEW-HARMONY.

Mr. Owen, whose plans for the melioration of society, have of late excited considerable interest in this country, has instituted, at his settlement of New-Harmony, (Indiana,) a school similar to that which attracted so much attention at his establishment in New-Lanark, (Scotland.) An account of this school will be given in an early number of our work.

EDUCATION IN MASSACHUSETTS.

Extract from Governor Lincoln's Message, January 4, 1826.

The cause of education and learning, can never unappropriately be presented to the favorable regard of the representatives of a free people. Various propositions for its advancement, by the establishment and endowment of institutions for qualifying teachers of youth, for instruction in the physical sciences, in agriculture, and in the whole circle of the arts, have been recently brought before the public, and will solicit the fostering patronage of the legislature. It can be with no gratifying reflections to the descendents of the pilgrim founders of the college, and the free schools of Massachusetts, that they find themselves constrained, by the state of the finances of the commonwealth, to deny to these high objects, the only effectual provision for their encouragement. Will not this humbling consideration serve as an incentive to devise some more ample resources for a revenue to the state, that thus, the solemn and imperative injunctions in the constitution upon 'legislatures and magistrates, in all periods of the commonwealth, to cherish the interests of literature and the sciences, and all seminaries of them, public schools and grammar schools in the towns. to encourage private societies, public institutions, rewards and indemnities for the promotion of agriculture, arts, sciences, commerce, trade, manufactures, and a natural history of the country,' may be faithfully and efficaciously observed. A present appropriation and pledge of a proportion of the proceeds of future sales of the public lands, would, at no very distant day, ensure a liberal fund for those objects.

AGRICULTURAL SEMINARY.

We are happy to understand that the establishment of an agricultural seminary, on a plan worthy of the State of Massachusetts, is

RECENT PUBLICATIONS,

DESIGNED FOR THE PURPOSES OF EDUCATION.

HINTS TO PARENTS: in two parts. Part I.—On the cultivation of children. Part II.—Exercises for exciting the attention, and strengthening the thinking powers of children, in the spirit of Pestalozzi's method. Reprinted, Salem, 1825. 12mo. pp. 72.

The idea with which this little work sets out, cannot be too often repeated. 'From an early *domestic* developement of HAND, HEAD, and HEART, the happiest results may be expected.'—This book is a manual which may be very serviceable to mothers, if they attend properly to one suggestion of the work itself: 'It is the SPIRIT and not the *letter*, of the system here recommended, at which the parent should aim.'

The American Instructer, calculated to succeed the English and other spelling-books: Containing a Selection of the principal part of the Words in common use, divided, accented, defined, and their pronunciation accurately pointed out,—adapted to the orthography and pronunciation of Walker: Interspersed with instructive and entertaining Reading Lessons. To which is added a comprehensive Abridgment of English Grammar. By Rensselaer Bentley. Troy, 1825. pp. 238.

This volume, if kept in its proper place, may be a useful school-book. Its value, however, must depend entirely on its being made the introduction to a larger dictionary, a wider range of reading lessons, and a more comprehensive treatise on grammar. Used as the author seems to have intended it should be, it will certainly serve a better purpose than any other work of the same class.

An Introduction to Linear Drawing, translated from the French of M. Franæcur, and adapted to the use of public schools in the United States. By William B. Fowle, Instructer of the Monitorial School, Boston. Boston, 1825. 12mo. pp. 64.

Whatever trains the eye to precision in the perception of form, or the hand to neatness and facility of execution, creates minuteness and force of attention, and favors clearness and correctness of thought. It is with much pleasure, therefore, that we take notice of this excellent little treatise, which bids fair to hold a respectable rank among useful works devoted to education.

Adam's Latin Grammar abridged, and arranged in a course of Practical Lessons, adapted to the capacity of Young Learners. Second edition. New-Haven, 1825.

This is an attempt to facilitate the study of Latin grammar by the application of the inductive method. The arrangement is strictly analytical, and of course varies from the common plan. The author relies much on frequent repetition in various forms. Numerous and minute questions are accordingly subjoined to every lesson. The explanations, which are very copious, are on the plan of the

tales for boys. Why an author who excels so much in natural and beautiful narrative, should have introduced such stories as these two, we cannot conceive. It is but justice, however, to say that our objection to them arises merely from our aversion to extravagant fiction.

Little Henri, a German Tale, translated from the French of M. Lambert. Boston, 1825. 18mo. pp. 120

This is an ingenious attempt to impress on the young mind some of the simpler truths of religion. The story is somewhat extravagant; but if the young reader places himself in the situation of Henri, he will no doubt receive many valuable impressions.

Warning and Example to the Young, or the story of Mrs. Neville and her grandchildren. By the author of the 'Teacher' &c., &c. Boston, 1825. 18mo. pp. 132.

Young children will not reap much benefit from this work. The story may be very useful, however, to young persons who would be unwilling to be classed with children.

Poetry without Fiction, for children between the ages of three and seven, with the Conversations of a Mother with her children. By a Mother. Boston 1825. 18mo. pp. 119.

This work is intended for a guide to mothers: its object is to cherish in the infant mind, habits of attention and reflection, and to cultivate kindness of disposition, and propriety of conduct.

Joseph Ellis, the Berry Boy. Boston, 1825. 18mo. pp. 28.

A very pleasing little story, which bears a considerable resemblance to 'Robert Fowle.' The book would perhaps have been more instructive, had Joseph not been quite so faultless.

History of George Freeman, a farmer's boy. Boston, 1825. 18mo. pp. 36.

George is somewhat precise in all his conduct. But his history is very instructive, and especially on the subject of agriculture. This little book is one which we think would do much good in every farmer's family.

to receive future instruction, not only with pleasure but with facility; and, above all, if he bear away with him the seeds of true religion and morality.

I would not, however, be here thought to imply, that much more than this may not, in very many instances, be attained. It is truly important distinctly to recollect, that it is the object of this system, rather to prepare the mind for instruction, than to fill it with knowledge; and that, if it have a preference for one part of the human being above another, it gives that preference decidedly rather to the improvement of the moral feeling, and the influence of true religion, than to the developement of the intellectual powers. I may now, on the other hand, remark, that, in endeavoring to produce both these results, as well as the others which are attainable, a judicious selection may be made of those things which approach the nearest to the future course of instruction, which it is proposed to pursue, and which may introduce it with advantage. It will appear, I hope, in the course of the following essay, that, in this view of the subject, the system of infant education requires only the superintendence of those who are interested in that object, to be made highly conducive to the preparation of the children of the poor for the modes of instruction which are followed in our National Schools. They will enter those establishments, not, as is too often the case, in a state of nearly total ignorance, and with, at the best, unsettled habits; but prepared, at least, to think, to feel, and to obey. The ground will have been broken up, many of the obnoxious weeds removed, and the seed sown; and the diligence of the judicious instructer will, in consequence, meet with a far earlier, and a far more satisfactory reward.

The eventual efficiency, indeed, of the system of infant education must depend almost entirely upon the cultivation which the mind of the children afterwards receives in the parochial schools; and it derives its peculiar suitableness to the present state of society, from the active and interested attention which is now given to those excellent establishments. It would be highly desirable, that, with every school for larger children, an infant institution should be so connected as to be under the same superintendence. The education in the latter might, by this arrangement, be made to assimilate itself to the instruction in the former; and we might then reasonably hope, that, although it should not be esteemed desirable to increase the range of their knowledge, we should yet send forth into society a class of persons, who, beyond the acquirement of the rules of right conduct, would have their minds imbued with the love of moral excellence and religion, and their heart prepared, under the influence of the best principles, for all 'the changes and chances of this mortal life.'

Order, howsoever important in itself, is, in such an establishment, chiefly to be desired for its connection with a future good, and must, therefore, by no means be secured to the prejudice of farther instruction. If the infants fear their teacher, they will receive, with reluctance, or even dislike, that in which he may propose to give them information; and transferring their repugnance to his authority, and their dislike of his person to the object for which that authority is supported, will early imbibe a distaste for the acquirement of useful knowledge, and a feeling of resistance to all control.

It remains, then, that THE FIRST OBJECT OF THE TEACHER OF AN INFANT SCHOOL MUST BE TO CONCILIATE TO HIMSELF THE FOND ATTACHMENTS OF HIS CHARGE. He may address himself constantly to one and another, in expressions of kindness and affection. He may sympathise with them in their little troubles. He may soothe their passions when they begin to rise, by a word of conciliation. He may unite in their amusements, and with them be childlike, without descending to folly.

It will be the object also of the teacher of an infant school to be himself the EXAMPLE of his little flock; and he will, therefore, in his communications of kindness to his pupils, have this farther end in view. While he endeavors to soothe their minds to peacefulness, he will personally set before them in himself those modes of feeling and of action, which shall awaken their incipient admiration, and afford them a pattern which, in some future period, they may with pleasure and safety follow. To the success of this attempt, the alacrity of disposition always attendant on that early age will lend a very effectual aid. The ear of an infant is engaged, and the eye is fixed, the one by the variations of tone, and the other by changes of the human countenance, much sooner, and with far greater effect, than those of the person who is advanced farther into the scene of life, and whose mind is occupied by concerns of higher moment. Scarcely an intonation of the voice of him who is the object of their affections, will be without its comparative effect. Scarcely an action will escape their notice.

The authority of the teacher, as far as it has hitherto been considered, is direct. It will follow, that we now proceed to the indirect influence which the circumstances of his school afford him over the mind and the feelings of his little flock. That which is most powerful, is found in their MUTUAL SYMPATHIES AND EXAMPLE. The effect of this influence, when under a judicious management, it is impossible to estimate, without having been personally a witness of it. It operates in every part of the system. Such indeed is the nature of the system; the variety is so continual, and the cheerful attention of the children is, in one way or another, so unremittingly kept alive, that whatsoever may be the theory of the case, the

The first of these is, THE FORM OF THE SCHOOL-ROOM, AND THE CIRCUMSTANCES WHICH HE THERE MAY INTRODUCE. Concerning the former, some remarks will be offered hereafter. I shall for the present satisfy myself in saying, that the children should be so placed in the room that attention may be accompanied with the smallest possible bodily exertion; and that the position of the instructer should be equally distant from the greatest part of his little flock; in order that he may appear to address them without pain to himself, and without the tones of anger to them. The room should be spacious, freely aired and lighted, and the walls frequently and well whitewashed. It should have every appearance of simplicity, and cleanliness, and health. The effect of this arrangement is irresistible. The infants leave, it is presumed, small and crowded, and too often dirty, rooms, for one which is cleanly and cheerful. The feeling which is connected with such a change is almost necessarily pleasurable, and they look forward to the hours when they are to be assembled as to a scene of real amusement and comfort.

If the teacher be judicious, many different modes, by which to increase the efficiency of this source of influence, will suggest themselves to him. Let the very walls of the school speak to him. Scripture pictures, especially those which tend to illustrate the life of the Savior, may be placed there with the best effect: for, although they may, at present, communicate to the mind of the child no connected history, they may prepare him for that course of thought which will aid his conceptions, when the narrative may be hereafter laid before him. The same remarks may be made concerning subjects of natural history. They will impress insensibly on the mind correct ideas of form, and figure, and color, in connection with the names of the various animals which may be presented to his eyes.

Nor would I omit short and expressive passages from the scriptures; bearing on the first and most simple principles of our religion, and the earliest duties of human life. These should be printed in very large characters, and meet the eye of the little pupils on every hand. To be very particular on these topics is hardly desirable, as this mode of influencing the little infants may manifestly be varied according to the taste of the superintendent of the school. How possible is it thus to cast a sort of moral atmosphere around their minds, and to elicit their first energies on those things which are both pleasing and salutary!

Among the subordinate means for throwing an influenee over an assembly of infants, we may next adduce MELODY. The effect of music, however simple, on the minds of children, is one of those things which nature herself has taught us. Pain and sickness and anxiety are often forgotten by the babe whose ear has been gained

personal dislike of those around, is by all means to be avoided. It may be stated as a fact, that children who have entered such schools with apparently fixed habits of sin, have lost those habits, within a few weeks after their introduction, without the use of corporal punishment.

Objections, similar to those which have been expressed concerning corporal punishments, may be made to the common mode of manifesting the approbation of a superintendent by rewards. These are not necessary, and, generally speaking, are unsuitable to the system of infant schools. Success is not, in the majority of instances, anywhere the mark of excellence. It is decidedly not so in these establishments, where the moral dispositions are as much the subjects of education as the intellect.

To rewards which are given generally through the school, I however by no means object. That which gratifies all, can excite a questionable feeling in none. When all are pleased, the spirit of unity is not injured, and the general tone of the establishment is improved.

(To be continued.)

BOSTON MONITORIAL SCHOOL.

(Continued from p. 42.)

We come now to the subject of *discipline*. It would be unnecessary to say that no corporeal punishment is inflicted in this female school, could we believe that it is never allowed in others. We need no check upon absence; for the absence itself is a severe punishment to the pupil. We check tardiness by rewarding punctuality; but, if this is not sufficient, we deduct the tardiness from the time allowed for recess; and, as few children love to sit still while their fellows are playing, such cases seldom occur. This is the only penance we inflict. By a vote of the trustees, the sum of twenty-five cents a scholar is appropriated every quarter, for rewards. This forms a fund, say twenty dollars, to be distributed quarterly, amongst the scholars. Now, as the usual method of distributing prizes and medals, while it gratifies one or two pre-eminent scholars, disappoints and disheartens a great many, fully as deserving, and affords no stimulus to the majority of the school, who never expect to gain the prize, we have adopted a more equitable and satisfactory method, which relieves the master or trustees from the painful task of selecting the best scholar, and affords even the least eminent as much reward as she deserves. A nominal currency, called *merits*, is introduced, and a certain number of merits fixed for

cannot now be found in any other public school. One year, I pursued the system of castigation, with no little rigor; but, becoming convinced of its evil tendency, I tried my present system, the second year, with perfect success. The children were more obedient, more attentive, and more happy.

It may seem unnecessary to say a word in answer to objections which have been made to the monitorial system; since its success has refuted them, in the most effectual manner; but I think they may be proved *theoretically*, as well as *practically* groundless, and therefore beg your indulgence for a few moments longer.

It is said that children, comparatively ignorant, are unqualified to teach others. In answer to this, it might be sufficient to assert that we do not require children to teach any thing of which they are ignorant; but it is said that children are not qualified to teach what they *do* understand; because they are ignorant of other subjects, and but little older than their classes. This principle appears to me to strike at the root of all instruction; and no adult teacher, who must necessarily be ignorant of many things which he does, or does not pretend to teach to an audience *older* perhaps than himself, ought to be countenanced, for a moment. But the wisest and best of us go to church, and to lectures on all subjects, without suspecting that the teacher is only a monitor, who knows a little more than we do of the subject under consideration, but is perhaps our inferior in other respects. The art of teaching consists chiefly in adapting the explanation to the capacity of the learner. That this qualification is possessed by few—very few—adults, is a lamentable fact. Even their familiarity with a subject is sometimes the cause of their failure, in attempting to communicate it to others. Is it not a reasonable supposition, that the explanations of children to children, may be often better suited to their capacities, than the explanations of adults? If it be granted that one child can teach another the alphabet, it follows that, with proportionate increase of knowledge, she can teach syllables, then short words, and so on to the end of all knowledge. It may be said, then, there is danger of a child's being required to teach too much. If the master is so ignorant of her capacity, as to require such an exercise, she will not attempt it. Children are more sensible of their defects, than their elders are, and have less art, and no motive, in concealing them. If, because a child is not thoroughly instructed, the capacity of her monitor must be questioned, what is to be inferred from the fact that pupils of all, even the best teachers, are often in the same condition?—I am almost

prevent the introduction of this worse than useless exercise. It requires no ingenious reasoning to prove, that, if children are only required to recite a page or two from memory, *verbatim*, a monitor is as capable of hearing the recitation, as any master can be. But, if the objection imply that the memory of our pupils is not exercised in storing up as many facts as are well understood, it has no foundation in truth. The memory is, no doubt, the storehouse of the other intellectual faculties; but, for the sake of filling it up, shall we throw in all the broken and useless furniture we can find room for? In a class of twenty, just promoted to my care, are several who have repeatedly committed to memory the large geographies used in common schools; but they neither rank at the head of their class, nor appear in any respect superior to such as commenced the study with them, but a few months ago, and never committed a word to memory. The immense difference of labor which this explanatory mode imposes upon the teacher and monitors, must satisfy any one, that personal ease is not our object in introducing it. We endeavor to exhibit every thing to the senses of the pupil. Instead of describing a kite to a boy we should make one before his eyes, and then require him to make one. Instead of describing the road to any place, we should go with the child, and let her see for herself. Which the child will recollect longest, the definition or the object, it is not difficult to determine. Our experience teaches us, that before children have reached the end of a large book which they are committing to memory, they have begun to forget the beginning. What an admirable method to prevent a master's having nothing to teach his pupils, and to save the expense of books! and what a comfort it must be to the little traveller on this delightful route, to know that when he travels it again, every object will be decked with the charm of novelty, and as fresh as if he had never seen it before! Even with all our care and practice, much is forgotten by the pupils; but we have a powerful check upon this natural tendency to oblivion, by the incessant reviews of former lessons, which monitors are obliged to make, while teaching. If any branch of education must be reviewed, how much more agreeable must be our method, and how much more will it diversify the exercise, and enlarge the thinking powers. Much as the public mind needs information on the subject of education, I think no one will deny that one cannot teach without also learning. But, if any parent doubts this fact, let him take a geography or other elementary book, and attempt to teach his own children. We will rest our defence upon the experiment. I have always found that those who teach most are the most intelligent scholars; and, for this reason, I always employ all, as far as our small number of scholars and classes will permit.

is always expected; but it must be recollected that the picture in the mind is much superior to that exhibited on paper. On the whole, the instructer is anxious to give his pupils a practical and *useful*, and not merely an ornamental education; believing with one whose memory our city fondly cherishes, one* who well knew how to value the elegant refinements and accomplishments of society, "That it is time some plan of more liberal and extensive female education were devised, to form the mothers of your children's children; an education, which will save many a ripening female mind from that feebleness, to which it might otherwise be destined, in this age of vanity and books; so that women may be more generally furnished with principles as well as sentiments, with logic as well as taste, with true knowledge as well as with a morbid thirst for entertainment."

We look forward also to the time when circumstances will warrant the introduction of physical, as well as intellectual education into our school. The practicability of uniting them was satisfactorily proved by a slight experiment, made last season, with very inadequate preparations. Enough was accomplished to show that the spirits of the pupils may be made conducive to their health, as well as to their amusement, and that, with suitable apparatus, and proper regulations, their physical powers may be improved, without detriment to their morals, or to that delicacy of character, which should distinguish females.

Very respectfully, your obedient servant.

WILLIAM B. FOWLE.

Boston, Dec. 23, 1825.

[The notes appended to this report, are so full, and, at the same time, so interesting, that we have thought it better to give them a place in our next number.]

COLLEGE OF SCIO.

[The present political attitude of Greece, gives an interest to every thing connected with its recent history. The following account of the college at Scio, will no doubt be peculiarly acceptable to our readers, from the circumstance of its having been chiefly written by a youth who was a student of that seminary, at the time when the Turks invaded the island, and who was one of the survivors of the horrid scene of massacre and devastation which ensued.

* Buckminster.

The edifice was of stone, of a blackish color: it was erected about the year 1800, for the education of the poor, and was then called a free-school. But, when Professor Bambas arrived at Scio, the new buildings that I have mentioned, were erected; and the higher branches of education began to be taught. The institution, however, still retained the name of a free-school.

The branches of education taught; were the following,—the ancient Greek, Latin, French, and Turkish languages, geography, mathematics, ethics, history, logic, theology, rhetoric, natural philosophy, chemistry, astronomy, and drawing.

All the students of the college studied Greek, and were divided into four classes. The lowest class was subdivided into three; each of which was committed to the charge of a separate instructer: the second and third were arranged in two divisions, each likewise under a separate instructer. Candidates for admission to the lowest class, were examined only in reading: when admitted, they began grammar, and attended to writing, parsing, and construing. In the second class, likewise, they attended to parsing, and translated authors more difficult than those which were studied by the first class. They also began to translate from modern to ancient Greek. The third and fourth classes attended to the same things nearly; but the authors were of the higher order, as Plato, Demosthenes, and the Poets. The lessons of these classes were longer, and the teachers, men of superior talent.

The instructers did not, as in some colleges in this country, accompany their divisions through all their studies, but each one superintended a certain year of the course. The students were usually advanced to higher classes, every two years; and not all the members of the class together, but only those who were thought fit by their instructers.

The students of the first, second, and third classes, spent about six hours every day in reciting,—three in the morning, and three in the afternoon. In the morning, they were first examined in the preceding day's lesson. Two or three of them then read the lesson of the day; after which the instructer commented upon it. The students then wrote down the translation of the instructer. In the afternoon, the time was spent in parsing, and syntax. In the second and third classes, the afternoon was spent in examining some of the scholar's translations from modern into ancient Greek, and also in giving the etymology and syntax of the whole lesson.

The students of the fourth class spent only an hour and half in reciting, commencing about half past eleven, when the other classes were dismissed. The professor commented upon the lesson of the day. One of the students then read and another analysed part of it. After they were dismissed, they had to translate their lesson into modern Greek, and write it down. The professor cor-

rected one of these, the next day; and the rest of the students corrected theirs according to it. This class had also to translate from modern into ancient Greek, and (like the other translation of their lessons) one was corrected by the professor; the others, by the students.

All the recitations of these four classes were in Greek; and the members of the first two were not permitted to attend to any other branch of education. As for the other two classes, it was left at the option of the students to attend to either arithmetic, or algebra, and either Latin or French; but not any other branch, as chemistry, philosophy, &c. The reasons why the students of these classes did not attend to any other branch, were, that the pupils were young, and that their parents thought it would be of more advantage to them, to defer the study of higher branches, until they had gone through all the classes, and received a thorough knowledge of their own language. The professors themselves advised to this course.

After the students had gone through these four classes, they might study the Latin, French, and Turkish languages. Very little attention was paid to Latin; and there were but very few who studied it. The Latin class had only three recitations a week. The French language received more attention; and the classes were divided into three; all of which were committed to the French instructer. They recited in the morning; each class occupying an hour. The Turkish scholars recited every afternoon. They were also permitted to attend the lectures on geography, which, during a part of the year, were delivered every day, in the afternoon, at four o'clock: on arithmetic, delivered daily in the forenoon, at half past eleven:—on algebra, three times every week, in the afternoon: on geometry three times every week, in the afternoon: on theology, once a week, in the forenoon of Saturday, during a part of the year: on logic, at the time when there were none on theology: on astronomy in the afternoon, three times every week, during a part of the year: on natural philosophy, three times every week, in the forenoon: on chemistry, in the forenoon, three times a week: on rhetoric, once a week on Saturday forenoon: on ethics, during a part of the year, three times a week, at four in the afternoon: on history, during a part of the year. Drawing was taught three times a week in the afternoon.

The professors were paid out of the college funds, which were collected from the donations of the people. It was customary for any citizen who met with success in business, to give something to the college; and many used to leave in their wills a certain sum for its use. But no student paid any thing for tuition,—not even the son of the wealthiest citizen. The students, however, had to procure books.

Further particulars concerning the college of Scio, are contained in the following extracts from a letter to Professor Hall of Middlebury college, by the lamented Parsons, an enterprising and indefatigable missionary to the East.—See Morton's Life of Parsons.

'*Scio*, (*Grecian Archipelago*,) *October* 12, 1820.

'Very Dear Sir,

'For a long time, there has been a public school in this city; but five years since, it assumed a new form and government under the care of Mr. Bambas, the principal professor. The progress has been rapid; and it now claims a rank among the first literary institutions of Turkey. Professor Bambas, previous to his acceptance of the charge of the seminary, spent seven years in Paris qualifying himself for the duties of this station; and he is now held in high estimation both as a scholar and as an instructer. Young gentlemen, from Constantinople, Smyrna, Thessalonica, Athens, and indeed from every direction are sent here to receive an education, and remain from one year to five years, according to the studies pursued. The number of students is about seven hundred. It is necessary to observe, however, that a considerable proportion of the students are very young, and are instructed in the first principles of grammar. In the different departments of college are fourteen instructers, who may be arranged in the following order.

'N. Bambas, Professor of Philos. Chem. Philol. and Rhet.—Salary $750.——Professor of Mathematics—Salary $430.——Professor of Theol. Geom. Algebra, Arith. and Geog.—Salary $430. ——Professor of the Turkish language—Salary $430.——Professor of the French and Latin languages—Salary $580.——Nine instructers in the ancient and modern Greek.

'The scholars in grammar are divided into four classes, according to their improvement. The method of teaching is quite peculiar. The instructer first reads the lesson from some ancient Greek author, compares each sentence with the modern Greek, and gives a paraphrase of the whole in the common dialect. After this, three students (selected by lot) are required to give in rotation a public exposition of the lesson, submitting to the corrections made by the professor. In this manner every member of the class must be in preparation, or be in danger of public admonition.

'The *examinations* are frequent and critical. Every Saturday the principal professor visits each class, examines the students in the lessons of the past week, and makes inquiry with respect to their moral deportment. At the close of each month, the students are required to present to the officers of college a fair copy of each lesson during the past month, and to submit to a public examination. On the seventh of January in each year commences an *annual ex-*

amination, which continues twenty days, in the presence of the bishop, corporation, faculty of college, and respectable gentlemen from the city.'

Such was the condition of this flourishing seminary till the island was invaded, and its population almost exterminated by the Turks. The college shared of course in the general catastrophe.

The following brief account of the melancholy fate of Scio, is taken from the Life of Parsons.

'We would not affirm that the Sciotes were wise in rearing the standard of independence at so early a period of the Grecian struggle. If unwise, they certianly paid dearly for their folly. But whatever reflections any may indulge on this subject, it is plain that the barbarities of the Turks, and the miseries of the Greeks, were almost unparalleled in the history of guilt and wo. The Turks landed in Scio, in April 1822. Before them it was the garden of Eden, behind them a desolate wilderness. The city of Scio was burnt and destroyed. The flourishing college there, the hope and ornament of modern Greece, was demolished; its library and philosophical apparatus given to the flames, and the professors and students slaughtered or driven into exile. Of the inhabitants, more than twenty-five thousand were put to the sword, burned and drowned, or perished by fatigue or by disease caught from the infection of the mangled carcasses that lay in the streets. More than forty-one thousand were sold for slaves. Many of these were ladies of distinction, who were dragged with ropes around their necks over the ashes and ruins of their own dwellings, and over the bodies of their slaughtered relatives, into transport-ships, to be carried to Smyrna and elsewhere, and sold into hopeless bondage. Upwards of forty villages and eighty-six churches were consumed by the flames. A number of suffering starving wretches fled to the mountains; and fifteen or twenty thousand escaped to some of the neighboring islands.'

It must be long ere Greece can again boast of an institution equal to that of Scio. But it is pleasing to observe that, in the meantime, the spirit of education and of improvement is not extinguished; and that schools on the monitorial plan, are in successful operation, in those regions where there is any confidence of security from the horrors of war. A central model school is established at Argos, where teachers are trained and qualified to commence similar schools in other parts of the country.

PROPOSED INSTITUTION IN MASSACHUSETTS.

[Under the head of intelligence, it was mentioned in No. 1 of the Journal, that an agricultural seminary was under consideration by the legislature of this state. We are happy to learn that the institution proposed, is on a larger scale, and is meant to embrace all the higher branches of a useful education for 'that class of persons who do not desire, or are unable to obtain, a college education.'

The immense importance of this subject forbids our entering on the discussion of it, within the limits to which we are necessarily restricted; and we shall perhaps better satisfy our readers, by submitting to them the following able report, and allowing it to speak for itself.

We introduce this subject in the present early stage of its progress, because we feel assured that it will be unanimously, and effectually acted on. The institution in contemplation, commends itself to the earnest attention and the best efforts of the assembled representatives of the commonwealth: it throws open the doors of a liberal and practical education to the great body of the people. It proposes such plans of instruction as cannot fail to train up for usefulness and respectability, the youth of Massachusetts generally:—not the sons of the wealthy merely, not the candidates for professional life, but the young of every class, who are preparing for mercantile, mechanical, or agricultural pursuits.

We repeat our hope that the proposed seminary will at once receive a place among the institutions of our States. It will prove, we trust, a substantial benefit to posterity, and a perpetual honor to our present legislature.

The report itself is an interesting proof of the extensive prevalence of enlightened views on the subject of education. Its authors will, we hope, be amply compensated for their exertions, by seeing all their suggestions sanctioned by the legislature, and adopted in more than one school of the kind which they recommend.]

Report of the Commissioners, appointed by a Resolve of the Legislature, passed on the 22d February, 1825.

The commissioners appointed by a resolve, passed on the 22d day of February last, now respectfully present the result of their deliberations to the Legislature.

By that resolve, it was made their duty 'to digest and prepare a system for the establishment of such an institution, or institutions,

as the commissioners should deem it expedient, for the State to create and endow, as should be best calculated to afford economical and sufficient instruction, in the practical arts and sciences, to that class of persons, who do not desire, or are unable to obtain a collegiate education; and also to prepare and digest a system for a proper organisation of a fund, to be set apart for the purposes of education; showing the sources from which the same might be obtained, and the objects to which the same ought to be applied.'

It is known that this subject was brought before the Legislature, by a memorial presented at the last winter session, emanating from that class of persons, most directly interested in it.

But neither they nor others, can hope for the success of any project of the kind, unless it be shown, that the wants of the community demand it.

In the language of that memorial, we may say with truth; 'that the present is the favorable moment, for calling the attention of the public to a serious consideration of the permanent interests of society. It is in such a season only, when the State is exempt from the burdens and dangers of war, that we are at liberty to consult, or government to provide for those interests, which belong not to *one* but to *many* generations.

'All wise States, therefore, have for these designs, availed themselves of such periods, when men have both the leisure, and the temper to consider, not only the immediate wants of Society, but their connection with the great family of mankind, and future ages.' The question in general, whether the State shall by public patronage cherish schools, colleges, and learning, has long with us been settled. Our schools are our pride, our glory; they make a part of our *State policy*. The frightful indifference which the mass of men has in all ages shown, to these most important interests, has in every wise community, forced the care of them upon the public guardians. With us it has become an axiom, that the preservation of free institutions, without great intelligence in the people, is impracticable. The inquiry now is, whether we are to rest content with what we have done, whether we shall remain stationary; or rather whether we shall retrograde, for in human improvement, in man or nations, there is nothing stationary. Every where else, in Europe, as well as in our own States, all is excitement, effort, and struggle. This is a country of business and labor. Hence arises the necessity of giving dignity to labor, as the duty, virtue, and happiness of an American citizen.

In most countries, learning and education constitute a seperate cast, an aristocracy of itself, a class of men distinct, exclusive, having little sympathy with the mass of their fellow creatures, little interest in their concerns, or knowledge of their affairs.

The question for us is, whether we shall take an opposite course, and endeavor to bring men into that state, in which all shall be satisfied, that so far as government is concerned, a tender regard is shown for all, and thus reconcile all to the inevitable individual distinctions, which exist in nature, and in every form of society however organised. The world has been divided into those who have governed, and those who have been in subjection. Education has given to the former their power, the want of it has placed the latter in a state of imbecility and abject degradation. It has been believed, that the reverse of this could not exist in nature. We, in these free States, on the contrary, are of opinion, that nature points out no such thing; but that the improvements which are growing up, show that much of this distinction is grossly artificial, against nature, and the order of Providence. That so many should remain in the semi-barbarous state in which they are found in most countries, covered with rags, buried in filth, terrible to the eye, and frightful to the imagination of cultivated men, (if that be shown to be a necessary condition) would lead us to think, that we are the victims of a pernicious and disgusting system of nature, rather than under the control of a benevolent being. No, this is not the order of Providence, but rather, that individuals and nations shall advance indefinitely, in all that knowledge, which expanding the intellect, and purifying the morals, makes man a religious being, and thus places him in a state, in which he cannot be badly governed. That a few hundreds or thousands in any country, should be so educated, as alone to be competent, to form any judgement of public measures, and the business of society, or any way capable of taking a part in the one or the other, would be incredible, if the fact did not stare us in the face. The science of government, has been thought an unfathomable mystery, except to a few of the initiated, but see to what a pass this necromancy has brought nations! what base superstitions, entailing misery and poverty, what wretched regulations in trade, establishing monopolies, and every artificial hindrance in the way of wealth and prosperity, what exterminating wars, what loads of debt!! Let *us*, however, realise our superiority, claim it, assert it, set it forth to the world, and maintain it, by all the means which God has put in our power.

The commissioners now proceed to a detail of the plan, which they have thought it expedient to offer; remarking as they go along, upon some particulars, and concluding with such observations and arguments, as have occurred to them; the force of which, they think will be the better perceived, after the details are presented.

The commissioners mean only to dicuss the subject of the general plan, and intentionally omit many particulars, the consideration of which must fall upon those, to whom the organisation of the in-

guages common to each other. The *French* language is now in general use, over much of the continent of Europe, among the well educated, and men of business, and particularly in the larger commercial towns with which we have intercourse; besides, it is the language of one of the most refined nations of Europe,—of a nation, whose literature and knowledge of the arts, should be common property in the world. It is common to the inhabitants of one of our most important States, Louisiana; her codes of law being even now, since her union with us, published in that, as well as our own language. In regard to the *Spanish* language, some of the same observations are applicable. But in addition, the very existence of the southern Republics, renders the acquisition of this, of tenfold importance; for it is hardly possible to conceive, that our intercourse with them, should not be of the most interesting and profitable kind.

2d.—*Grammar, Composition, Rhetoric, including Speaking and Reading.*

These, if *writing* and *arithmetic* be added, may be deemed the elements of an English education. As to *writing*, that is not intended to be included, as it rather belongs to a primary school; and it is supposed, that the art has been acquired at a period, before it is intended that a boy shall enter this school. In regard to *grammar* and *rhetoric*, including *speaking* and *reading*, it will be enough here to offer a remark or two. Some of the observations presented in the conclusion of the report, will have a bearing upon this head. As to the *grammar* of the English language, it cannot be considered an unsuitable acquisition for our intelligent farmers, mechanics, and merchants, who are called every day to officiate in the most important business of the country. The imperfect manner in which it is taught, in many of our common schools, requires no comment. By *rhetoric*, including *reading*, is here meant the art of *public speaking*.

As to *reading well*, which is the foundation of *speaking well*, it is notorious as a general truth, that this is not taught even in our highest schools; or, if taught at all, in the most imperfect manner. Good reading, which, it would seem, ought to be a common acquisition, is one of the last that can be found. In a school, therefore, for popular education, which is intended to fit men for those common duties, that, without distinction, not only do, but ought to fall upon many among us, we lay great stress upon the arts of *reading* and *speaking well*, which in a free country, are very commanding qualifications, and make up for many defects.

3d.—*Book-keeping and Arithmetic.*

In a country in which, to our honor, business is a distinction, instead of the ability to be idle, these branches are essential. Be-

tween the man who has, and the man who has not the power of figures, the difference is so great, that they seem hardly to belong to the same race. This goes to show, however, how accessible to the mass of men, with proper opportunities, is a great portion of that knowledge, which, if attained, breaks down half of the odious barriers of separation which exist.

4th.—*Geography and History.*

Upon the former, no comment need be made here. As to the study of history in this school, it should be that of our own country; its early settlement; the revolution, and the causes that led to it; of the respective States, and particularly our own. These subjects are national, and belong appropriately to *us*. The knowledge of them should stand pre-eminent in the mind of an American boy: here he has a constant theme of pride and exultation. It is this, which identifies him with some of the most interesting struggles, the most brilliant exploits, which have ever gained the admiration, or elevated the character of man.

5th.—*Drawing.*

This art has not generally been taught in our schools; but no man ought to be ignorant of its importance in the business of life. To be able, in half an hour, to make, with a lead pencil, a sufficiently correct picture of any common house, apartment, bridge, tool, or instrument that we see, to serve as a model to copy from, is certainly no trifling attainment. It is as certain, that to this extent it may soon be learned.

Society is divided into different professions, in any of which, if a man has acquired in a good degree, that which belongs to his, he has enough for respectability and success. At the same time, it is equally and eminently true, that to one great class of laborers, we mean those on the land, much miscellaneous knowledge is essential; their occupation leads necessarily to an acquaintance with half the arts of life. A good farmer will seldom be found ignorant of common mechanical operations. He may not be able to do the thing, from not having the slight of hand, but he knows how it *should be done*.

6th.—*Mathematics, in its largest sense.*

The fear of running into tedious details, leads us to as much brevity as possible. It is easy to see what a fruitful subject of remark may be found in each of these topics.

The schools which we propose to institute, are to fit men for what are strictly called the *laborious occupations*. Mathematics are not

essential to a lawyer, a clergyman, or a physician; and it is even true, we presume, that many of the most eminent in these classes, would not like to be put to the demonstration of the first propositions in Euclid. It is equally true, that the knowledge of this science is essential to others. The sailor cannot go out of port without it: to the land surveyor it is a profession: in the art of war it is indispensable: to all who are engaged in public works, such as fortifications, canals, acqueducts, &c. it is as much so. Indeed, in many departments of active business, it may be considered an accomplishment, without which, a man is but half furnished for his occupation.

7th.—*Natural Philosophy.*

This, in truth, embraces the whole science of material things. It treats upon the general properties of bodies; their gravity, their laws of motion; of *hydrostatics*, or the mechanical properties of fluids; of *pneumatics*, or the mechanical properties of air; of *optics;* of *astronomy;* of the *mechanical powers* strictly so called, as the lever, pulley, wheel and axle, inclined plane, wedge, screw. As to *practical mechanics*, we shall, in a subsequent part of this report, particularly advert to that subject. *Botany*, *geology*, and *mineralogy*, also coming under this head, will occupy a distinguished place in the pursuits at this school.

8th.—*Chemistry.*

This, though belonging to the department of natural philosophy, is in fact a science by itself, and so taught. It implies a knowledge of the component parts of bodies, animal, vegetable, and mineral; that is, of the art of ascertaining their properties and relations to each other. There is hardly any domestic business, in which the knowledge of it is not important. The making of bread, beer, wine, cider, the distillation of spirits, preservation of food, the making of butter, cheese, soap, &c. are all chemical operations. To the farmer this science is peculiarly useful. It enables him to analyse soils and manures, thus to ascertain what particular crops are proper for different soils, and to improve a poor soil by the mixing of different ones. Knowledge of these particulars, without the aid of this science, will be guess work, loose and unsatisfactory.

9th.—*Agriculture and Horticulture.*

This head will be the subject of remark hereafter.

10th.—*Moral Philosophy and Morals.*

In our colleges, moral philosophy, which may be said to be that science, which teaches our duties generally, is, with propriety,

made a branch of study, and should have a place in this institution. The moral philosophy, however, which is to be taught from books, is far less important, than that moral discipline which, having its deep and well laid foundation in *christian morals*, can and should be made a part of the discipline of schools. Morals are doubtless best taught in the great school of life. In admitting this, however, we must remember that we enter this school in youth. Enthusiasm may dream of some great moral machinery, by which the world is to be regenerated, but we find, that all improvement is a work of time, labor, and pain; that the vices of society lye deep in the constitution of things, and are perpetuated like its diseases.

While this is admitted, are there many who are not the wiser and better for the prudent religious instructions of a careful parent, or a tender friend? Austere manners are no part of the condition of things in this country; and in the schools, very unpropitious to moral discipline. The mere prejudices in favor of power and authority, have disappeared from among us: in their stead, we must substitute everywhere, and especially in our schools, the *parental government*. For this, in the relation of instructer and pupil, there must be affectionate manners, intercourse, and sympathy. By *morals*, also, in these schools, we mean those which belong to an *American citizen* as such; many of whose duties, either as a public or private man, are peculiar: they belong to no other; they spring out of relations and institutions that are new; they cannot be taught from books. This topic embraces a wide range of observation, which the occasion does not admit. While upon the subject of the morals of a school, we cannot pass by the indispensable religious duty of a greater attention to *health* and *exercise*. None but those doomed to sedentary life, can appreciate the importance of this subject. How much of the virtue and religion of a human being depends upon that healthful physical state, which gives buoyancy to the animal spirits, resolution, ardor, and disinterestedness to the mind, none can say. The effeminate habits of our sedentary classes are a just subject of animadversion; and we are satisfied, that a better discipline in our schools, is no longer merely to be talked about, but that on the contrary, it can be adopted, insisted upon, and carried into practice. This too we deem indispensable, if these schools hope to maintain the respect of the public.

11th.—*Political Economy.*

This, also, will be remarked upon hereafter.

Thus, for the sake of simplicity and method, we have mentioned those objects which should be pursued in these institutions, intending to revert again to the notice of some of them.

As to the *number* of these schools, to be endowed immediately by the State, the commissioners have made up their minds, as before suggested, to recommend *one only*,—to be located at some point *central*, or as nearly so as may be. A situation *quite central*, they do not deem any way important. As there may be a diversity of sentiment upon the subject of the number of the schools, they beg leave to submit their views upon it.

The project is an experiment; and we think it will be more conformable to the prudent, business-like character of our people, to enter upon it, on such a scale, that nothing is likely to be hazarded by undertaking too much. Most of the provisions, regulations, and expenditures, for such an institution, are out of the usual course, in regard to which, we have little or no experience. As the great design of the school is *utility and profit*, *Economy* in every disbursement is indispensable. In new establishments, for the want of experience, it will be found, that many things have gone wrong, and that if done over again, they could be better done. One school, will, in many particulars, serve as a model for others, which, at a future time, can be followed with advantage. The difficulty of finding, at once, a sufficient number of competent instructers and managers of several such institutions, the commissioners conceive would be very great. These suggestions have appeared conclusive to the commissioners, in recommending that which they deem the prudent, safe, and economical course. The plan, however, eventually, of one institution for the State, they do not deem fully adequate to the main design of such education as is here proposed.

The principal design of the plan is, that *a great many* shall be able to avail themselves of the advantages which it offers: *one* institution does not seem to answer that object. In one institution only, few would take a deep personal interest. Any school, by being brought within a local sphere of no great extent, naturally attracts the attention, and receives the patronage of those within it. It is *their* school, and a spirit of rivalship in this, as in almost every concern, will be found useful; the supervision of it is more easy, and less expensive. Its proximity to the residence of the pupils, will accommodate a greater number: for this reason, a greater number will resort to it. It is intended, that, through the means of *lectures*, *and other facilities*, young men shall be enabled to resort to these schools, for the purpose of instruction in *particular branches*, for *six* months, and perhaps a less time. To this description of persons, *nearness* would be a great object. More schools than one, by bringing into contact various parts of our sister States, is a consideration not to be omitted. The opinion which the commissioners entertain of the usefulness of the system, and of the favorable eye with which it will be regarded, is such, that they do not doubt,

that one school will not accommodate so large a number as will soon be found to resort to it.

The commissioners will no farther enlarge upon this topic, than by mentioning one, which they conceive to have a strong bearing upon it, and, indeed, upon the general question of the expediency of the endowment; and that is, the subject of *patronage*, to which they have already alluded. They are aware, that it has been thought by many in this country, that private bounty and patronage to schools and colleges, to any great extent, could not be expected: certainly nothing compared with this kind of munificence in Europe. They are not of this opinion. All things are comparative: we could not accomplish in half a century, that which Europe has been many in effecting, and that half on our part, devoted to self preservation. It may be said of nations, as of men, that it is a very expensive business to carry them through their childhood. For accomplishments, we have had neither time nor money: these were not easily obtained, while we were obliged to watch our cradles, with guns and bayonets in our hands. Why may not our schools expect private patronage? Though wealth will not accumulate here, in the same form as in Europe, we are destined to unexampled prosperity. The world has, till now, never seen a people, with minds and hands unfettered, all pursuing, with intense eagerness, private advantage, which necessarily results in general riches. The desire to enrich our children, cannot become a national characteristic with us, for while, elsewhere, wealth, and a freedom from labor, constitute distinction, here it is talent and business. We may well pride ourselves upon a state of society, in which the class of idlers must live without consideration. Devotion to our schools, public and private, has become a passion; and well it may be; for to us it is a necessary, self-preserving virtue. If men have wealth, they desire to gain distinction by it;—and what way is more natural, than through that public munificence, which, exhibited in the patronage of schools, tends most to conciliate the regard of the whole community? In the period in which we have lived, the bitterness of politics has choked up half the natural channels of public and private virtue; in such a condition, it is not State, or country, but party, that absorbs a man's mind. All these considerations have a distant bearing upon the question, as to the *number* of these schools; for we think that the nearer they are brought to the attention of individuals, the more likely are their pride and affections to be engaged in them. We should not have indulged in such a latitude of remark upon this head, did we not think the subject highly important.

(To be continued.)

BOSTON HIGH-SCHOOL FOR GIRLS.

This school is intended to supply a deficiency in the provisions for public instruction in this city, which has been long felt and regretted. The English high-school has been in successful operation, since 1821; and the satisfactory result of this experiment, prepared the way for the establishment of the High-School for Girls. Our system of public schools, for the instruction of *boys*, may be pronounced complete; and the liberal manner in which it is supported, is equally honorable and beneficial to the city. It is no exaggeration to say, that every boy in Boston, whatever may be the character and condition of his parents, may receive a thorough course of instruction,—not only in the lower and more common branches of knowledge, but also in classical literature and the sciences,—in the schools supported at the public expense; and that he may acquire in them an education, which will well fit him for the active duties of life, and will be found as good, at least, as can be acquired at many respectable colleges.

While they to whom is committed the superintendence of the public schools, have been assiduously and successfully laboring to elevate the character and extend the usefulness of these schools, the interesting subject of *female education* has neither been overlooked nor neglected. Many important and salutary improvements have been introduced into this department of the system. With new motives for diligent exertions in their studies, the girls have found themselves in possession of more equal privileges in the grammar schools. Beyond these schools, however, the city has hitherto taken no care of their education: there have been no provisions for their instruction in the higher departments of literature and science. It is a consideration highly gratifying to all the friends of the new school, that the various measures, relative to its establishment, have been attended with a unanimity almost unprecedented. The motives which influenced the authorities of the city to establish the High-School for Girls, the general principles upon which it is to be organised and conducted, and the branches of education to be pursued, may be learned from the following interesting documents, extracted from the Records of the School Committee.

At a meeting of the school committee, held May 10, 1825, on motion of the secretary, it was

Voted that a committee be raised to consider the expediency and practicability of establishing a public school for the instruction of

girls in the higher departments of science and literature, and to report upon the same to this board.

Voted that this committee consist of Messrs. Welsh, Pierpont, Bassett, and Hayward.

At a meeting of the Board, held June 22d, the report of this committee was read, and *unanimously* accepted. We subjoin some extracts from this report.

THE committee appointed to consider the expediency and practicability of instituting a school for the instruction of the female children of this city, in the higher departments of science and literature, have had under their consideration the matter referred to them, and ask leave to report to this board.

That your committee have construed the terms in which the subject has been referred to them, as inviting their attention, in the first place to the expediency, and in the second to the practicability, of the measure proposed.

In the first place, in regard to the *general* expediency of placing women in respect to education, upon ground, if not equal, at least bearing a near and an honorable relation, to that of men in any community, your committee think that no doubt can, at this day, be entertained by those who consider the weight of female influence in society, in every stage of moral and intellectual advancement; and especially by those who consider the paramount and abiding influence of mothers upon every successive generation of men, during the earliest years of their life, and those years in which so much, or so little, is done, towards forming moral character, and giving the mind a direction and an impulse towards usefulness and happiness in after life. As to the *general* expediency, then, of giving women such an education as shall make them fit wives for well educated men, and enable them to exert a salutary influence upon the rising generation, as there can be no doubts, your committee will use no arguments at this board; but will confine themselves to the *particular* expediency of provision for a higher education of our daughters, at the public expense.

And your committee think favorably of making an effort to this end, for the following reasons which are particular, as well as for the many reasons which are more general in their nature.

In the first place, it would render more efficient, and, consequently, more profitable to the city, the provision which has already been made for the public education of its daughters.

As our public grammar schools are now constituted, some of the finest scholars in the girls' department are seen in the first class at the age of eleven or twelve years, by the side of girls of

fourteen or fifteen years old, who have been rather tolerated in the first class either from courtesy to their age, or from pity to their unsuccessful efforts, than to any title that they could urge on the score of their good scholarship. As the class must, on the present system of organisation, move on together, the former are continually held in check, that the latter may keep in their company; and as the masters have neither time nor authority to go with them into higher studies. It is easy to see, what is of every day's occurrence, that the more sprightly girls find it difficult to fill up their hours profitably to themselves; and are in constant danger of falling into habits of inattention, and mental dissipation; a danger which now presses upon them for two or three of the last years that they are allowed their seats in the public schools. Now, by the school proposed, this evil, which is a very serious one, would be obviated. The same field would be opened in this school, for the girls, as has for a few years been so successfully opened in the English High-School, for the boys in the grammar schools. An object would be presented of honorable ambition, and of lively competition, to the misses who are now condemned to two, and sometimes three years, very inadequately and unprofitably employed; and those indolent habits of mind might be avoided, which it is so much more easy to prevent than to correct.

Secondly. The school contemplated seems to your committee to be particularly expedient for this city, in respect to the impulse that would be given by it to the whole machinery of our public instruction, through the medium of the *primary schools*.

These schools are daily gaining the confidence of the community, and consequently are daily furnishing a greater and greater proportion of the children to our grammar schools. Of course, it is of continually increasing importance that these *first* schools should be taught by those who are themselves well educated. They are, and probably will be, taught exclusively by women; and it is doing no injustice to the city, or to the gentlemen who so faithfully superintend these schools, to say, that they are not always able to find women qualified as they ought to be, to take charge of these very interesting public institutions. A school like that now in contemplation, would certainly and permanently furnish teachers for the primary schools, competent in every respect to render the city efficient service; and especially in this respect, that they will have gained by their own experience a thorough knowledge of our whole system of public instruction, and the relations of its several parts to each other. Thus, the city will insure to itself a greater excellence and uniformity in the primary schools than is possible at present, and be always able to recur to its own resources, to meet its own wants;—exhibiting thus, in morals—what has been so

long a desideratum in mechanics—a piece of machinery that, by its own operation, produces the power by which itself is driven.

Thirdly, your committee think a school such as is proposed particularly expedient to this city, in regard to the experiment that might be made in it, of the practicability and usefulness of *monitorial or mutual instruction;* or, at least, of so much of that system as *on experiment* would be found to accord with the genius and habits of our community. That *something* of this system might be introduced into all our public schools, to the benefit of the schools and to the pecuniary advantage of the city, your committee can hardly doubt. One experiment has been made, and made successfully. But there were considerations which prevented the carrying of that system up from the school in which it was tried, into the higher public schools. The same system, with some qualifications, has been under successful experiment in a subscription school, composed of the daughters of our most respectable families; and your committee are persuaded that, under the control of a master of judgement and genius, so much of that system might be profitably introduced into a female high-school, as would prove to the public in this city that the same might be carried into our *grammar* and *reading* schools, at least, to great advantage. At any rate a *satisfactory experiment* might be made. Should it fail, as it hardly can, the city will lose nothing but the time and comparatively trifling expense of making it; and should it succeed, the city will secure to itself the better instruction of one third more children than are now instructed, and at probably one third less expense.

Your committee are not sure that it falls within the spirit of their commission to present a statement of the studies which should be pursued in the proposed institution. But, without attempting a particular statement, or a definite arrangement, of the studies,—leaving that duty to a future committee, should the city think favorably of the project,—your committee would beg leave to recommend, in general, that in the female high-school should be taught reading; writing words and sentences from dictation; English grammar, embracing frequent exercises in the composition, transposition, and resolution of sentences; composition, to be taught systematically, and to be a regular exercise in all the classes; rhetoric; geography, ancient and modern, embracing the use of maps and globes; elements of geometry, so far as is necessary to the construction of maps, and to the study of natural philosophy; arithmetic, intellectual and written; book-keeping by single entry; general history; history of Greece, Rome, England, and the United States; natural philosophy, with as much of chemistry as would be useful in domestic economy; moral philosophy; natural theology; and astronomy.

Of these studies, however, your committee would recommend that some be *required*, and others only *permitted*, as tokens of merit and incitements to industry; thus opening, in this school, what this is intended to open to all the grammar schools of the city, a course of higher instruction, as an object of honorable emulation, and the most unexceptionable reward of industry.

Having spoken thus of the general character of the school, and of the considerations which, in their opinion, render the establishment of it particularly expedient, your committee would, in the second place, state briefly their views of the practicability of establishing it.

To this there can be but one objection,—that of *expense*. But your committee are persuaded that this is not an insuperable obstacle to the effecting of an object which seems to be so important to the best interests, and to one of the most cherished objects, of the citizens of Boston;—their system of public education. Indeed, *in this respect*, the present seems to be an auspicious moment; and, on close examination, the school will not be so expensive, as it might, at first, be supposed. For, first, in respect to *a house*, no new one would be required, for the first year, at least, of the school's operation.

In regard to the other source of expense, that of teachers; this, also, it is believed, will be less formidable than may be apprehended. It is intended, indeed, to place the master of this school, in respect to his salary, upon a level with the respective masters of the Latin and English High-Schools. But for the first year, certainly, the master is to be the only instructer recognised by the city; and, as it is intended to conduct the school, in a degree at least, upon the system of mutual instruction, the ratio between the number of teachers and of scholars will always be much less than in either of the schools last mentioned.

But, in regard to the expense at which the contemplated school is to be instituted and sustained, your committee think the same remark may be made of this, as of all our other public schools. When liberally supported they more than support themselves. They are a source not of honor only, but of pecuniary profit, to the city; for, taking into view—as an enlightened policy does take into view—the whole period during which these institutions exert their influence upon the community, they more than indemnify the city for the expense of their maintenance, in that the knowledge they diffuse through the great mass of the population, throws open new and wider fields to enterprise, gives higher aims to ingenuity, and supplies more profitable objects to industry.

For these reasons in particular, as well as for those of a more general nature, which cannot fail to suggest themselves to the minds of the gentlemen at this board, your committee are of opinion that it is expedient and practicable to institute a public school, for the instruction of the female children of the city in the higher branches of science and literature, and accordingly recommend to this board the adoption of the following resolution.

Resolved, That the mayor, as chairman of the school committee, be requested to lay this report before the city council, and ask of that honorable body the appropriation of two thousand dollars for the present year, to carry into effect the object herein proposed.

THOMAS WELSH, Jr. for the Committee.

Extracts from the report of a joint committee of the city council, read and accepted in the board of Aldermen, August 22d, 1825.

The committee appointed on the 25th ult. to take into consideration the report of the school committee on the subject of a high-school for *females*, upon the plan of 'monitorial or mutual instruction,' Report,

That they have given this interesting subject the consideration, which its importance seemed to demand; and that your committee are persuaded, that it will be greatly for the interest and honor of the city, to establish the proposed female school upon the plan reported by a sub-committee, and accepted in the school committee, on the 22d, June last; and your committee recommend that suitable measures be taken to establish the said school, with as little delay as possible.

In regard to the resolution of the city council, on the 25 ult., directing your committee to consider and report upon the expediency of introducing the system of 'monitorial or mutual instruction' into all the grammar schools of the city,—your committee have duly considered the subject, and are of the opinion that any immediate or sudden change in the system of instruction at present pursued, would be attended with many important difficulties, and have the tendency to put at hazard the high reputation which our public schools have so justly acquired. If the female school, now proposed, should be successful, the other schools would gradually, and very naturally, fall into this system, if found, on experiment, to be the best. Your committee are, therefore, of the opinion that it is inexpedient to make the change suggested, for the present.

Respectfully submitted.

Per order of the Committee,

J. BELLOWS.

The committee to whom were referred a communication from the school committee, recommending the establishment of a High-School for females, and the report of a joint committee of the city council on that subject, and who have also been directed to consider the expediency of introducing the monitorial system of instruction into all the grammar schools in this city, Respectfully report,

That your committee think it expedient that a high-school for females be established, pursuant to the recommendation of the school committee, and that the city council adopt the resolve, accompanying this report, appropriating for that object the sum of two thousand dollars for the present year.

The school committee advise that this school for females should be conducted on the system of monitorial or mutual instruction, which your committee highly approve.—Being a new school, this system of instruction may be introduced into it, without causing any of the inconveniences which might possibly arise in a long established school, from a sudden and entire change in the whole system of instruction and discipline.—This mode of instruction will be peculiarly appropriate in the high-school for females, inasmuch as many, who will attend it, will not only acquire there an education for themselves, but will also learn the art of teaching others.—All the instructers of the primary schools are females; and it can not be doubted that, hereafter, many of them will be selected from those taught at the female high-school.

So far as the public have been able to become acquainted with the monitorial system of instruction in this city, it is believed that they have every reason to be well satisfied with it; and if further evidence as to its usefulness be necessary, the present appears to be a suitable opportunity for obtaining it.

With regard to the expediency of immediately introducing the monitorial system of instruction into all the grammar schools in the city,—(highly as your committee think of that system,) we cannot but doubt whether so important a change should be made suddenly and to the extent proposed.

Such is the present state of our public schools, that no material injury can result from delaying, for a while, the abandonment of the present system of instruction for another; which, (while we believe it will be found more useful and less expensive than the present system,) ought perhaps to be more thoroughly tested before being universally adopted.—And your committee believe that we may very safely rely on the intelligence and vigilance of the school committee that this system of instruction will be recommended by them; and we doubt not that it will be adopted, as soon as may be with advantage to the public.

We therefore deem it inexpedient, at this time, to extend the system of monitorial or mutual instruction into all the grammar schools in the city.

J. R. ADAN, for the Committee.

CITY OF BOSTON.—*Common Council*, Sept. 26, 1825.

Resolved, that the sum of two thousand dollars be, and the same is hereby appropriated for the purpose of establishing a high-school for females, pursuant to a report accepted by the school committee on the twenty-second day of June last, and communicated to the city council,—which school shall be located in such place as the school committee shall designate.

This Resolve being twice read, passed.—

Sent up for concurrence.

FRANCIS J. OLIVER, President.

In the board of Aldermen, Oct. 10, 1825,

Read and concurred.

JOSIAH QUINCY, Mayor.

The preceding documents exhibit the views of the different departments of the city government, in establishing the High-School for Girls, and the general principles upon which it is to be organised and conducted. Without confining the instructer to any prescribed system, they authorise him to introduce *monitorial instruction*, so far as it may be found profitable and expedient. The application of this principle in a school devoted exclusively to the higher branches of education, must be very much a thing of experiment. There is no precedent applicable in every respect. The pupils are not to be initiated, from their earliest childhood, into the details of mutual instruction; but are to be received, at an advanced age, and after they have been taught, in the old manner, in all the common branches of an English education. It would have been impracticable to prescribe the details of a system applicable to such a school; and they have been wisely left to be determined by experience.

The following extracts from the report of a committee, consisting of Messrs. Quincy, Blake, Hayward, Pierpont and Bean, exhibit the course of instruction to be pursued in the school, and the general regulations for its government. The report was accepted at a meeting of the school committee, held Oct. 26, 1825.

The committee on the subject of the establishment of a higher school for female children, have had under their consideration, the matter referred to them, and ask leave to report.

Among the points necessary to be considered in the organisation of the school in question, the following have presented themselves

to your committee; viz.—the qualifications for admission to the school; first, in regard to age, and secondly, in regard to literary attainments; the time which the course of studies shall occupy; the order in which the studies shall be pursued; the time for the annual opening of the school; the hours of attendance upon its duties; the time to be allowed as holidays; the place where the school shall first be opened; the number of scholars for which accommodations shall at first be provided; and the time for the annual exhibitions of the school.

Upon these points, your committee would propose that the candidates for admission to this school shall be *eleven*, and not more than *fifteen* years of age; allowance, in particular cases, to be made according to the discretion of the school committee; that they shall be admitted on examination in those studies, which are pursued in the public grammar schools of the city; and that the examination may be strict or otherwise, as the number of candidates shall hold relation to the accommodations provided for them:—

That the *course of studies* in this, as in the English High-School, shall be calculated to occupy *three years*.—

That, in pursuance of the suggestion of the original report on this subject, some studies shall be *required* of all the scholars, and others *allowed* as evidences of honorable proficiency, and as motives to higher efforts; and that the following be the studies of the school, according to the order in which they shall be pursued, until otherwise ordered by the school committee.

First Year.—*Required:* No. 1. Reading—2. Spelling—3. Writing words and sentences from dictation—4. English grammar, with exercises in the same—5. Composition—6. Modern and ancient geography—7. Intellectual and written arithmetic—8. Rhetoric—9. History of the United States.

Allowed: Logic, or Botany.

Second Year.—*Required:* Nos. 1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, continued—10. Book-keeping by single entry—11. Elements of geometry—12. Natural philosophy—13. General history—14. History of England—15. Paley's Natural Theology.

Allowed: Logic, botany, demonstrative geometry, algebra, Latin, or French.

Third Year.—*Required:* Nos. 1, 5, 12, 15, continued—16. Astronomy—17. Treatise on the globes—18. Chemistry—19. History of Greece—20. History of Rome—21. Paley's Moral Philosophy—22. Paley's Evidences of Christianity.

Allowed: Logic, algebra, principles of perspective, projection of maps, botany, Latin, or French.

The *allowed* studies to be pursued at the discretion of the master, with the sanction of the school committee.

The school shall open on the second Monday of December annually. Candidates for admission shall be examined on the Friday and Saturday preceding the first Monday of that month.

The hours of attendance upon the duties of the school, shall be as follows. From the first Monday in April to the first Monday in October, from 8 to 12 A. M. and from 3 to 6 P. M.—and from the first Monday in October to the first Monday in April, from 9 A. M. to 2 P. M.

The holidays shall be the same as in the Latin and English High-Schools; excepting that Wednesday afternoon shall be substituted for Thursday afternoon—and that the time between the last Thursday of November and the second Monday of December, shall be substituted for the week succeeding the Commencement at Cambridge.

Accommodations shall be provided for 120 scholars, at least; and for more, if the room will allow it.

The annual public exhibition of the school shall be on the day after the public exhibition of the girls in the several grammar schools of the city, to wit, on the last Thursday of November annually, in the forenoon.

Respectfully submitted for the committee, and by their order.

JOSIAH QUINCY, Chairman.

At a meeting of the school committee, held Jan. 13, 1826, it was *Voted* that the school instituted for the instruction of the female children of the city, in the higher departments of literature and science, shall be called *The High-School for Girls.*

Attest, JNO. PIERPONT, Secretary.

In many respects, this school is an experiment; and it cannot be fairly tested, without patient and laborious exertions. A free school for the instruction of females, founded on principles so liberal, is in itself a novelty; but such a novelty argues well for the spirit and the improvement of the age, and of the community wherein it is fostered. A system of government and instruction, exactly fitted to the circumstances of this school, cannot be perfected and introduced at once; but there can be little doubt that, in the end, the reasonable expectations of its friends will be fully realised.

The High-School for Girls, will be opened on Wednesday, the 22d inst. in the second story of the school-house, in Derne-street.

REVIEWS.

An Address delivered in Nashville, January 12, 1825, *at the Inauguration of the President of Cumberland College. By Philip Lindsley, D. D. President of the College.* Nashville, 1825, pp. 48.

In calling the attention of our readers to this address, we should be happy to present them some account of the author, and of the institution over which he has been appointed to preside. Our information, however, enables us only to state that President Lindsley is a gentleman of experience in the art of education, who has filled, with good report, a professorship in the college at Princeton. From the address we learn that Cumberland College is an institution which has attained to considerable eminence 'under the masterly guidance of its distinguished founders, the indefatigable labors of its first most worthy instructers, and the faithful administration of its late lamented President:' that it is situated at Nashville, in West Tennessee, 'almost on the line which separates the healthy from the unhealthy portions of the great valley of the Mississippi, —as far south, probably, as it will ever be desirable to establish a seminary of the kind:' that, 'though a Christian, it is not a sectarian institution. Its immediate patrons and directors belong to several religious denominations. It is the property of no sect or party. It looks for support to the liberal of all persuasions, and is pledged to be equally friendly and indulgent to every class and description of citizens. No parent needs apprehend danger to the religious creed of his son, by any influence which shall here be exerted.'

Stopping here, to admire the catholicism of the plan which the above remarks describe, we may further premise that our want of knowledge in this case may be attended with the only advantage that ever accompanies ignorance: it precludes the possibility of prejudice for or against the publication we propose to review; and would force us, were we otherwise inclined, to speak with candor of the *object* which the author has in view, his *sentiments* concerning it, and the *means* which he suggests for carrying it into effect.

The occasion of this address led the author to select the subject of Education for his theme; and he very early makes known his opinion on 'the question' which 'has often been agitated, whether a public, be preferable to a private, education? Much,' says he, 'has been plausibly urged in behalf of each mode. The decision of mankind, however, has been pronounced in favor of a public system. Such was the award of Quinctilian, whose treatise on the

meaning phrases, will pass current among too large a class of hearers, especially if they be, as in this case we suppose them, his admirers.

The consequences of this state of opinion, which we apprehend has been very general in our country, have been extensively injurious. It is a truth that we have produced few thorough scholars; that the number has been very small of those who have completed their public education, with minds disposed and prepared to continue a course of mental exertion; very few with whom the eclat of having *been to college* has not sufficed to content their ambition, and limit their efforts to add to their own literary attainments, or to aid in any amendment of the systems of education, that might promise to advance others more rapidly and surely in the way to useful knowledge. With those graduates who have entered the professions, classical literature and universal science have generally become forgotten objects; and, except as we have intimated, for the name, they might have as well commenced their professional studies immediately from the plough, or the shop, or the counting-house, as to have spent some five or six years in preparatory studies, so considered, which have benefitted them in nothing, unless it be in giving a familiarity with words, and the faculty of "running over" hundreds of pages in the least possible time.

If the evils of the opinion we are now alluding to, had stopt with the student and his friends, it might be less a subject of regret; but it has created a corresponding opinion in those who have had the direction of college studies; which is thus delineated in the address before us:

'There is a fashion, already prevalent in some of our colleges, to attempt to teach their pupils every thing. To hurry them from book to book—and from science to science—with such rapidity as rather to confuse the youthful mind by its variety, than to enrich it with its abundance. The rage often is to attend the greatest number of lectures, not to master the subjects of any—to hear and to see, rather than to study. We have only to cast an eye over the course prescribed in many institutions to be convinced that no more, at best, than a smattering of the whole can possibly be acquired. By aiming at impossibilities they do nothing as it should be done. The public is often imposed on by the rich bill of fare which is held forth. Parents, allured and deceived by a long list of hard terms which they do not understand, send their sons to seminaries which seem to promise most; without stopping to inquire, or being able to judge, whether the promise can be fulfilled. They would readily appreciate the absurdity of any pledge, from however respectable a source, to teach their sons some dozen or score of mechanical trades within the short space of four years.

'And few know how much a child or youth may be taught by a judicious system, which, while it keeps him steadily engaged in some great department of solid learning, is yet able to present such a variety, at proper intervals, as to keep the mind ever on the stretch and eager after knowledge. Let a parent make the experiment with his son of ten years old for a single week, and only during the hours which are not spent in the school. Let him make a companion of his child—converse with him familiarly—put to him questions—answer inquiries—communicate facts, the results of his reading or observation—awaken his curiosity—explain difficulties, the meaning of terms and the reasons of things—and all this in an easy playful manner, without seeming to impose a task—and he will himself be astonished at the progress which will be made. So in a college, if, besides the regular daily routine of close and diligent application to severer studies, provision be made for easy access to any species of information at all times, much will be gathered, without in the least diminishing the amount of more solid attainments. The pupils will breathe a literary atmosphere. They will be encompassed with the means and incentives to every kind of mental effort. They will be in the midst of a learned society—and every hint they receive may be improved. Books, lectures and experiments may be read, heard or witnessed—even on subjects which they cannot thoroughly investigate; from which, nevertheless, much that is useful may be acquired. It is worth while to know the elements—the extent and general nature of the sciences—and to form such an acquaintance with books, as to be able to estimate their intrinsic and relative value. Thus circumstanced, they will acquire liberal and enlarged views and feelings. Their horizon will be extended far beyond ordinary limits. They will direct their future endeavors towards a more elevated standard and rank of scholarship than they would otherwise have dreamt of.'

We have dwelt longer and extracted more copiously on this part of our subject, from a conviction that the grand cause of the inefficiency of our *college educations*, even in New England, has proceeded from the source which the address points out; and that the remedy consists in the correction of the erroneous opinions and expectations, which have for many years prevailed respecting the ends and objects of classical instruction. When young men shall understand that it is no recommendation, to talk swelling words, and make pretensions to what they know next to nothing of; and that it can be no disparagement, to reply to more than one of a thousand queries, *that is one of the things which I do not know*,—then we may see a reform within the walls of colleges, and a marked solidity of character take place of the vain show in which too many now walk.

Another and more novel subject, as connected with a college education, is introduced in the course of this address. The author

complete employment of a *proper* kind, for all the time of every individual, would, in my opinion, be the best system; and might, perhaps, be fairly denominated a perfect system. And every approximation to it will, to the same extent, be an approach to perfection in this all-important concern. Keep youth busy, and you keep them out of harm's way. You render them contented, virtuous and happy.

'The *principle*, or, if you please, the *genius* of the system, is constant employment, under proper direction, so as most effectually to improve every faculty of the pupil, and to fit him, in the best manner, to act well his part in future life.'

How far the American public is prepared to witness such a change in the customs of our colleges, as these remarks would recommend, remains to be decided. It is certain that the reputation acquired by the national academy at West-Point, the private institution of Capt. Partridge, and the Gardiner Lyceum, have done much to evince the probable benefit of it. Dr. Lindsley has pondered the project well, and seems to have little doubt of its success.

'Let,' says he, 'some dozen or twenty mechanics of good moral character, be duly authorised to open their shops for such as might prefer, or as might be better adapted to, this species of labor. Thus, many useful trades might be learned, and the whole expense of their education be defrayed, without any material loss of time—even if time, thus employed, could be accounted lost. A youth, ardent in the pursuit of knowledge, would learn more in half his time, than most of the indulged sons of affluence actually acquire in the whole. And there are few industrious young men who could not earn their living, and a little more, by laboring half of their time: especially in a town where so many profitable occupations would be at their option, and where the products of the field, the garden, and the workshop, would ever find a ready market.

'The most startling difficulty in the way of any plan of this kind, would be suggested, probably, by the obvious inequality and apparently invidious distinctions which would obtain among the pupils of the same institution. But does not a similar inequality exist among our citizens and youth everywhere in society? The objection, however, is merely specious. For, in the first place, none but youth (poor youth, I mean,) determined to have an education, would resort to such an institution. These would soon learn to disregard or despise the *petits maitres*, who might affect to be their superiors. They would in fact be as independent as the richest. How much more truly respectable and republican would be their condition, while thus *laboring* for the food of body and mind, than that of the student who is supported in luxurious ease by the charity of individuals, or of the public! How vastly preferable to the situation of a Cambridge sizer or Oxford servitor—many of whom, nevertheless, have filled, and are filling, the highest stations in church and state! In the second place,

and a taste for the exercise of it, are not incompatible with elevated powers of mind, and enviable literary attainments.

Mass. Hist. Coll. 2. X. 165. 'One trait in his character ought here to be noticed, and the more so, because the opposite defect is the most prevailing one in our country. What he *did know*, or attempted to study, he studied *profoundly;* and, if his knowledge failed in extent, it was, in all cases, owing to want of health or of means.—Mr. Peck inherited his father's taste for *mechanical philosophy*, and, as an artist, he was incomparable. His most delicate instruments, in all his pursuits, were the products of his own skill and handicraft. His favorite exercise and amusement was with his lathe; and he has left some fine specimens of turning executed by him, after he had wholly lost the use of one of his hands.'

To return to the address before us. Although the author establishes a standard of excellence to which none of our colleges have as yet attained, and points out improvements of which they all stand in need, still he is far from intending to depreciate their worth in the estimation of the people at large.

'Still,' says he, 'with all their faults, I remain their decided advocate.' Having in the early pages of his pamphlet extolled the advantages of education, generally, he had prepared a way for stimulating his audience to become ardent patrons of public institutions designed for its advancement.

'But raise up colleges among yourselves, and you reduce the charges of a liberal education so considerably, that hundreds and thousands can immediately avail themselves of their aid. Not only all the middling classes of citizens, but enterprising youth of the poorest families may contrive to enter the lists of honorable competition with the richest. As is done every day in the northern and eastern states; where, indeed, the poor, more frequently than the rich, rise to eminence by their talents and learning. Such is the peculiar genius and excellence of our republican institutions, that moral and mental worth is the surest passport to distinction. The humblest individual, by the diligent cultivation of his faculties, may, without the aid of family or fortune, attain the most exalted stations within the reach or gift of freemen. What an encouragement to studious effort and enterprise! What an incentive to the generous aspirings and honorable ambition of our youth! Why should not the door be opened wide for their entrance upon this vast theatre of useful action and noble daring?'

'The greater the number of the liberally educated in any country, the better the chance of obtaining suitable instructers for the inferior institutions. Wherever colleges abound, there is no difficulty in providing teachers for all the academies and schools in their vicinity. Witness the four universities of Scotland, and the dozen colleges in New-England. And what country can compare with these, for the general diffusion of knowledge among the people? Where are common

Instructions in all kinds of Gymnastic Exercises, as taught and practised in the Gymnastic Institutions of Germany: designed as well for colleges, schools, and other places of education, as for private use. With eleven illustrative Plates. By a Military Officer. London. 1823. pp. 99. 8vo.

A 'complete education,' is a phrase often used without regard to the proper extent of its signification. If the various textures and organs of the body, and the general faculties of the mind of any fortunate individual, have been educated in early life by suitable exercises; and if, in consequence of this rare cultivation, he has attained that enviable state in which all his faculties, material and mental, are at once well-formed, sound, vigorous and adroit; and if his moral nature has been equally well nurtured and disciplined; —then, and then only, we see a man whose education may justly be called complete. Such an individual is prepared to enter on any pursuit which duty or necessity may prescribe, and with every assurance of success which human wisdom can provide or secure.

It should be the aim of every school in which education is completed, to place every pupil in this situation, by the time he leaves his instructers; and every preceding seminary should be conducive to the same end,—so far as the different circumstances and destination of individuals may require or permit.

To preserve the advantages of this education, one task only remains for the pupil. In pursuing any particular profession or course of business in life, some parts of his system must be more frequently called into action than others; and these parts will retain, if not overworked, all the power and mobility of which they are susceptible; while those portions of the body which are comparatively neglected, will lose more or less of these properties.

The task, then, for the pupil is this: in the intervals of his stated occupation, during which some members are regularly and fully exercised, the quiescent parts should be as often brought into full action as may be sufficient to keep them flexible and healthful:—in other words, to retain what education had given them. There are two reasons for the observance of this rule. First, those organs and faculties on which we depend for the daily performance of our business, whether manual or intellectual, cannot be perfectly fitted for the best efforts they are capable of making, unless the other parts of the frame with which they sympathise, and by which they are affected, are in a state of vigor and activity. Second, if the individual should change his labors, those organs which have been least exerted may now be called on to perform those duties which were previously executed by other agents.

The inferior instruments and agents should always be ready and able to obey the dictates of the presiding mind, as well as to maintain its authority and pre-eminence.

The whole of education consists in knowing *when*, *how* and *what* to teach, and in carrying these points into effect. The physical education of the infant may begin, and should begin, from his birth; but his mind should not be too early brought under the formalities and restraints of direct discipline and instruction. By using his locomotive powers and his senses, he may, however, very soon begin to acquire a knowledge of the material world, and thus improve the instruments with which he is to advance in science and practical information, so long as his active powers continue.

But all this is very different from setting a child on his stool in solitude and silence, when three or four years old, to get his book lesson. Better would it be to burn his stool and book, than to do this. Cheerfulness and gayety are the birthright of innocence; and who on earth has a right to sever, what has been united in heaven? The first ten years of existence can in no way be better spent, than in laying a deep and broad foundation for good health and spirits, for the rest of life.

This secured, there will always be time enough left to educate the mind, which is now to be aided and sustained through its whole career, by a sound foundation of muscles, brain and nerves. It is, however, by no means necessary that, with healthy children, ten entire years should be devoted to the body. The three inseparable branches of instruction should go on in equal and harmonious progression. Let the body and the mind interchange their labors, and they mutually support and advance each other; neither being pushed beyond slight and temporary fatigue;—for a degree of fatigue which a good night's sleep will not remove, is proof that the effort has been carried too far.

No one can study with devotion and profit beyond a certain portion of the twenty-four hours,—let the residue be given to the gymnasium. This is precisely the resource which is wanted in numberless institutions, to occupy and fill up those vacant and dangerous hours, which are robbing so many of our young men of their physical and moral soundness, and retarding their progress in every laudable pursuit.

For the truth of this statement we appeal to the history and present state of every college in our country.—By the remedy proposed we get not only health and morals,—no slight rewards,—but the education also of the mechanism and faculties of the body; and this is at all times doing much for the empire of mind. But it may be contended that most of us get sufficient exercise for health, in the way of our ordinary pursuits and employments. This, gene-

rally, is not true, while we are at school or afterward. Besides, if this sort of exercise were, in some instances, sufficient in quantity, it is never all we want in quality.

An artisan or laborer, for instance, may work enough in one direction, or even to excess, as it respects some of his muscular organs, while other parts of his frame, and his mind, are declining from inaction. The active being is never in a powerful and active state, never fitted, as a whole, for any thing near the highest attainable preparation for action and enjoyment.

Let these occupations do what they can, and the resources of art do the rest. The modes of conveying knowledge to the human mind, will doubtless be improved in the course of our intellectual advancement. It is to be hoped and believed, that we shall see less of dejection, and silence, and books, at an early age, and more of society and interest, more of oral instruction, more of illustration by instruments, and representations addressed to the senses. Docility, cheerful and prompt attention, and respectful deportment, should secure to every pupil the smiles and approbation of his parents, instructers, and friends. The labor of study should, as much as possible, be sweetened and lightened by hope and animation; and sullenness, disgust, and despair, thus be banished from the sphere of school and the teacher.

In Pere Gerard's school in Friburg, where healthful and pleasant exercise is made a part of the business of school, so anxious are the boys to improve, that they are often known to rise in the night to study; and so lively and interesting to them has he rendered the exercises of the school, that very young children are fond of attending. The ex-queen of Sweden lately visiting this school, observed a very young child in one of the classes. 'Why do you come here my child?' said she, to the tiny scholar. 'To amuse myself,' was the answer. Still more surprised, she asked, 'How is it that school amuses you?' 'Oh madam,' said he, 'we amuse ourselves here all the day long!' (*Griscom's Year in Europe.*)

With regard to *what* is to be taught, it is of course that which the scholar will need most when he comes to act for himself. The rule is so obvious, simple, and important, that it admits of one short remark only; it has often been nearly reversed, and but very rarely so much attended to as it always ought to be.

In acquiring what is thus useful and appropriate, the invigoration and expansion of the mind, and the habit of attention, the essential preparatives for any subsequent improvement, may as well be established, as in learning what is irrelative and comparatively useless.

The preceding thoughts were suggested by the perusal of the work of which we have given the title.—The author commences his preface with the following sensible remarks.

INTELLIGENCE.

FRENCH ACADEMY OF EDUCATION.

THE following are the chief rules of the French society of education. [See intelligence, in our first number.]

Objects of the Society.

Under the conviction, that the progress of knowledge, and the perfection of the arts and sciences, are the most suitable means of meliorating the condition of man, the members of the society combine for the purpose of seeking out the best methods of education and instruction.

ARTICLE 1. The society shall occupy itself with whatever relates to education, physical and gymnastic, moral and intellectual, scientific and productive (industrielle): it will labor to perfect the methods of instruction.

ART. 2. It will encourage the publication of works adapted to the aid and direction of masters in teaching, and in rendering study easy to their pupils.

ART. 3. It shall give its suffrage to new methods which shall appear to be useful.

ART. 4. It shall propose premiums, and ordain medals to the authors of the best works on education.

ART. 5. It will encourage gymnastic exercises.

Organisation of the Society.

ART. 6. The society shall be composed of members honorary, and members of the council; each member of the society shall pay an annual subscription, the *minimum* of which is 20 francs.

ART. 7. Every six months the society shall meet in general assembly to hear the reports of the council, on the employment of the funds, and the result of its labors.

ART. 9. The society shall have in France and in other countries, corresponding associates, chosen from among men distinguished in the sciences, arts, or literature.

Organisation of the Council.

ART. 11. The council shall be composed of fifty-six members, distributed into eight committees.

1. The committee of physical education.—2. The committee of moral education.—3. The committee of languages.—4. The committee of historical science.—5. The committee of law and political economy.—6. The committee of mathematical science.—7. The committee of physical science.—8. The committee of liberal arts.

ART. 12. No person can be a member of the council, who has not perfected a method, published some work, or communicated memoirs, relative to the objects of the society.

ART. 17. The different committees are especially charged, each in what concerns it in giving their advice on the merit of methods, on plans of education and instruction, and on memoirs or works submitted to the council.

ART. 18. The council will give to teachers and persons who apply to it, information relative to methods, and the manner of their application.

ART. 19. The council shall meet in ordinary session twice a month.

ART. 25. There shall be annually printed a statement of the funds, the manner in which they have been employed, a list of the members, and the amount of each subscription.

ART. 26. The society shall publish a collection of its memoirs.

Griscom's Monitorial Instruction.

MONITORIAL SCHOOLS IN EUROPE.

The following details relative to the progress of education, chiefly of a scriptural kind, and by means of the system of mutual instruction, on the continent of Europe, are given in the last report of the British and Foreign School Society.

On the continent of Europe, France first claims attention. The committee deeply regret that their report must again be unfavorable. The Executive Government has withdrawn its assistance. The schools in France are not so numerous as before: it is thought that there may be still from 600 to 800. The schools in Paris, which are 22 in number, and are supported by the city, contain 5000 scholars: they are reported to be going on well.

The accounts from the Netherlands are very encouraging. Two large model schools are now in preparation at Brussels, with suitable residences for the master and mistress. Several cities and towns have been supplied with masters who have been regularly trained in the system; and the Scripture Lessons, in French, are permitted to be used. His Excellency the Baron de Falck, the minister of public instruction, zealously promotes education among the poor. His Majesty the king of the Netherlands, and the Prince of Orange, patronise the object; under whose auspices the system of mutual instruction will undoubtedly prosper.

The British system has been introduced into Denmark, in the villages of which country education has been long enjoyed, while the inhabitants of the large towns were surprisingly neglected. In several of the old schools the plan of mutual instruction had been adopted. The expense of preparing the writing lessons was defrayed by a donation from the King, who, with the Queen, is represented as highly pleased with the system.

Mr. Gerelius is prosecuting his labors in Sweden, if not with splendid success, yet not without beneficial results. There are several schools in Stockholm; some of which are so crowded, that many children are waiting for admission: these schools contain about 500 scholars. There are upward of 80 schools in different parts of Sweden; and the British system is said to be encouraged by all branches of the community.

By the persevering exertions of the Russian Bible Societies, great progress is made in the design of supplying all the nations and tribes of that immense empire with the sacred scriptures. The general establishment of schools will be a necessary appendage to these efforts: the committee trust that the importance of this measure will not be overlooked. Application has been made to Mr Heard, by Gen. Ballashif, to organise a model school at Riazan; with a view to the introduction of the British system into the five provinces of which he is the governor, and which are situated in the centre of the Russian dominions.

The School for Foreigners has been eminently successful: the numbers thronging for admission were so great, that a larger building was found requisite, and a fine hall, capable of accommodating 600 children, has been engaged: the former school-room is to be appropriated to the instruction of 150 girls. Some striking anecdotes have been communicated to the committee, showing the happy effects of scriptural education both on the pupils and on their parents.

Though no direct information has reached the committee from Tuscany, the schools there, upward of thirty in number, superintended by the active friends who form the Education Society at Florence, continue to thrive and bear fruit. At Naples, one of the large schools which had been suppressed has been re-opened, with promising indications of efforts being made for the opening of others.

Very little intelligence has been received from Spain. That the progress of education has been, in some instances at least, checked by recent occurrences, it seems impossible to question. The flourishing schools at Seville were suppressed on the approach of the French army: it is not improbable that a similar disaster has occurred in some other places. But when it is considered that the British system was introduced into Spain before the late disturbances, and under the royal sanction, it may be hoped that it will not be suffered to wither and die:

this hope is further justified by the fact, that the central schools in Madrid are prospering, assisted by the direct patronage and personal superintendence of the Duke del Infantados. *Christ. Observ. Sept.* 1825.

CITY OF LONDON INFANT SCHOOLS.

At a meeting held at the Rectory-house, Bishopsgate, the Lord Bishop of Chester, Rector of St. Botolph's, Bishopsgate, in the chair, an institution was formed for establishing Infant Schools in the city of London, for the reception of the children of the poor, from two to six years of age. The Lord Mayor and the Bishop of London are patrons, Mr. Peel vice-patron, and the Bishop of Chester president, with a highly respectable list of vice-presidents and other officers.

'The object of this institution,' the conductors state, 'will be, to provide for the care of the children during that portion of the day when, by the necessary avocations of the parents, they are unavoidably separated from each other; to form the children to habits of obedience, good order, and attention; and to give them such elementary instruction as may prepare them for entering with advantage into those schools where they may acquire useful knowledge, and be taught the great truths and duties of religion. Great inconvenience,' it is added, 'is at present experienced in the National Schools from the number of children under the age of six years pressing for admission; who, having been taught no habits of discipline or good order, greatly embarrass and impede the process of instruction in the schools. For this evil an effectual remedy will be furnished by an infant school, out of which a regular supply of well trained children, imbued with the rudiments of knowledge, will be from time to time furnished to the National Schools. It is no unimportant recommendation,' the committee add, 'of such establishments, that, by promoting cleanliness and regular exercise on the part of the children, they tend greatly to secure the health of the rising generation. Those who are accustomed to visit the children of the poor best know how many cases of disease, deformity, and bodily incapacity, are to be met with, arising from confinement in crowded rooms with an impure atmosphere, from other dangerous exposures, and particularly from those distressing accidents by fire which are of such frequent occurrence.'

It is with the greatest pleasure we observe the extension of these highly useful establishments in various parts of the kingdom; and we strongly urge our readers to consider the practicability of forming them in their respective neighborhoods. *Christ. Observ. Aug.* 1825.

EDUCATION IN BUENOS AYRES.

Mr. Parvin in the month of July, 1823, sailed from Boston, in company with Mr. Brigham, for the purpose of obtaining information, particularly that of a religious character, relative to South America in general. On landing at Buenos Ayres, it was found expedient to direct his first efforts to acquiring a knowledge of the Spanish language. While engaged in this pursuit, it was proposed by several gentlemen from foreign countries, that he should open a school for the instruction of their children, and of any others who might desire to attend. The measure, however, was considered as merely an experiment, and it was presumed that none but the children of foreigners would apply for admission. Mr. Parvin commenced his instructions in the month of March, 1824. On the first day, five only attended; second day, six; third day, seven; and so on, to the number of 20. Here the school seemed, for a time, to be nearly stationary; and it was still considered uncertain whether it would eventually succeed. The undertaking, however, was persevered in; and soon the number of scholars increased to 25—then to 30—and afterwards to 40. The labor had now become too great for an individual, and it was found necessary to employ an assistant. Providentially a young gentleman was obtained for this station, of excellent qualifications, and in

From the information received from different quarters we have reason to expect a large accession to our numbers. The Dormitories now provided, can accommodate 218 students. The neighboring town of Charlottesville perhaps 50 more.

A printed copy of the statutes and regulations enacted by the Board of Visiters for the government of the University is now communicated. We have thought it peculiarly requisite to leave to the civil magistrate the restraint and punishment of all offences which come within the ordinary cognisance of the laws. At the age of sixteen, the earliest period of admission into the University, habits of obedience to the laws become a proper part of education and practice. The minor provisions and irregularities alone (unnoticed by the laws of the land) are the peculiar subjects of academic authority. No system of these provisions has ever yet prevented all disorder. Those first provided by this Board were founded on the principles of avoiding too much government, of not multiplying occasions of coercion by erecting indifferent actions into things of offence, and of leaving room to the student for habitually exercising his own discretion. But, experience has already proved, that stricter provisions are necessary for the preservation of order: that coercion must be resorted to where confidence has been disappointed. We have accordingly, at the present session, considerably amended and enlarged the scope of our former system of regulations; and we shall proceed in the duties of tightening or ralaxing the reins of government, as experience shall instruct us in the progress of the institution.

The last report stated that, in addition to the sum of $19,370 4 1-2 which had been paid or provided towards the building called the Rotunda, there were still remaining of the general funds, a sum of about $21,000 applicable to that building; that this sum, although not sufficient to finish it, would put it into a state of safety, and of some uses, until other and more pressing objects should have been accomplished.—It has been indispensable to finish the circular room, destined for the reception of the books; because, once deposited in their places, the removing them for any finishing which might be left to be done hereafter, would be inadmissible. That has therefore, been carried on actively, and we trust will be ready in time for the reception of the books. The other apartments of indispensable use were, two for a chemical laboratory, one for a museum of natural history, and one for examinations, for accessory schools, and other associated purposes. An additional building too, for anatomical dissections, and other kindred uses, was become necessary. We are endeavoring to put them into a bare state for use, although with some jeopardy as to the competence of the funds.

On representations to the general government of the interest which the legislature of Virginia had given to their university in certain claims then depending between them, of the great disadvantages under which this institution must labor, without the books and apparatus which this donation was to supply, that government did not hesitate to aid us with an advance, on account of such a sum as might cover that given to the university. A catalogue of books for the library was thereupon prepared, an agent employed to purchase them wherever they could be obtained cheapest and best, and a sum of $15,000, for this purpose, was placed at his disposal. A previous sum of $7677,81 had been advanced by the general fund, for the purchase of books, and apparatus of immediate necessity: and a sum of $6000 appropriated, on loan, towards preparing the room in the Rotunda destined for a library, making together $31,677 81. For the purchase of a Philosophical apparatus, a sum of $6000 was deposited in London; a list of the proper articles, and their selection and purchase, were committed to a character there highly qualified for the execution of the charge; and another sum of $3000 was deposited in London for the acquisition of articles necessary for the anatomical school. A good proportion of these articles we are in hopes to receive this autumn, and the residue in the ensuing spring.—Some donations of mineral collections have already been received; others, destined for the university, are known of; and it is believed we shall, in this way, be supplied sufficiently for all the purposes of education.

proper details. This department seems to be very judiciously managed; and the dictionary with which it closes, is well adapted to produce a classical pronunciation, in conjunction with as much information as is commonly required by young readers of history.

The sketches of ancient history, are accurate and comprehensive; and the volume on Greece and Rome, possesses uncommon merit. The volume devoted to the history of England, contains the excellent little work of Mrs. Trimmer.

To abridgements of history, drawn up in the common way, we have objections. History is a branch of education too important to be hurried through in a few small volumes. It should be studied at much greater length than has hitherto been common.

The little work before us adopts the plan of presenting history in the form of a chain of biographical narratives: it is, in fact, designed more for the study of biography and chronology than of formal history. In this way, the objection to which most abridgements are liable, is entirely avoided; and the interesting aspect of private life and individual character, is given to the narratives of the historian.

Conversations on Common Things, or Guide to Knowledge: with Questions. For the use of Schools. By a Teacher. Boston, 1824. 18mo. pp. 263.

The design of this little volume is excellent. The author endeavors to furnish the minds of children with useful miscellaneous information on many things which do not fall under any of the common divisions of education, but are of vast importance in common life.—The work is intended for the use of schools; but we know of few publications which are better adapted for the purpose of family instruction, or for enlivening a winter evening's fireside.

The wars of the Jews, as related by Josephus, adapted to the capacities of Young Persons: illustrated by Engravings. Boston, 1826. 12mo. pp. 192.

This work is, as the title intimates, an abridgement of Josephus. The author's intention is, to supply children with a continuation of Jewish History, from the point at which it is left by the sacred narratives.

The object of this volume is certainly a laudable one, and it has been very successfully accomplished. The style is simple and familiar; and the horrors of the Jewish warfare are relieved occasionally by the adventures and amusements of the family circle in which the book is supposed to be read.

This work is one of a very useful class, which we are happy to observe becoming popular. Abridgements of standard works which are too large or too costly for juvenile readers, are of great value in the early formation of a taste for useful reading.

Elements of Geography, exhibited historically, from the creation to the End of the World: intended as a First Book in the study of Geography, for Children in schools and private families. By Jedidiah Morse, D. D. Sixth edition. New-Haven, 1825. 18mo. pp. 162.

This little volume is designed to connect the study of Geography with that of sacred history. It is interspersed with some of the sublimest and most beautiful passages of Scripture. It is intended to lead the minds of children to those contemplative views of the subject, which shall induce them to connect it with the origin of the world, and of the human race, with the most important and interesting events recorded in the history of mankind, and with the final destiny of this earth, the great theatre of their actions.

This work will, we think, be found very useful in its proper place. It seems peculiarly adapted for Sunday schools.

A New Universal Atlas of the World, on an improved plan; consisting of thirty Maps, carefully prepared from the latest authorities; with complete Alphabetical Indices. By Sidney E. Morse, A. M. New-Haven, 1825. 4to.

A work of this kind has long been wanted. There has been hitherto no intermediate atlas between the outlines used at school, and publications too expensive for general use.

The above atlas is on a plan somewhat original in its details, but extensively sanctioned in the rapid circulation of an atlas of the United States, on the same plan.—All names which could be conveniently inserted, observing the grand outline of the maps, are given in full, as in common maps; but small towns, and places which it would be difficult to insert in full, are referred to by figures and Italic letters. So that this atlas actually furnishes as much matter as some, of which the cost is three times as high.

We take much pleasure in recommending this valuable work, as one which will be found happily adapted for the use of schools of the higher order, and of private families.—The execution, we may add, is exceedingly neat and highly creditable to the publishers, (Messrs. N. & S. S. Jocelyn, of New-Haven.)

BOOKS FOR CHILDREN.

Hymns for Children, selected and altered, with appropriate texts of Scripture. By the author of 'Conversations on Common Things.' Boston, 1825. 18mo. pp. 143.

This valuable little work will furnish pleasing employment for Sunday. The selection manifests both judgement and taste. It does not contain, however, a great number of hymns adapted to very young children. The author complains of the difficulty of finding pieces well adapted to such a class of readers, and alludes to the acknowledged defects of most attempts of this kind. But we cannot agree with the author in what she seems to advance, that, in such circumstances, children should be permitted to commit to memory what they do not understand. It would perhaps be better to say at once, that this selection is not intended for infant minds.

Books such as this, ought, we think, to mention the age of the children for whose use they are designed. Parents would then have a satisfactory guide by which to make a proper selection for the various members of their families.

The Robins, or Fabulous Histories, designed for the instruction of Children, respecting their Treatment of Animals. By Mrs. Trimmer. Boston, 1822. 18mo. pp. 234.

The spirit and design of this little work are excellent. The author's endeavor is to cultivate in children humanity to the inferior animals, and to open the young heart to benign feelings towards every thing that lives.

The history of the Robins is mixed up with that of the family in whose garden they have taken up their abode. Many agreeable and natural incidents are introduced, in a way which cannot fail to interest and please children, and at the same time inculcate a useful lesson.

Tales of the Pemberton Family: for the use of Children. By Amelia Opie. Boston, 1825. 18mo. pp. 107.

Mrs. Opie has been eminently successful in the department of writing to which this little book belongs; and the Tales of the Pemberton Family are among her happiest efforts. The impressions left on the mind of the young reader of these tales, will be decidedly conducive to virtue and piety.

Little Flora. By Elizabeth Somerville, author of many approved works for children. Boston, 1825. 18mo. pp. 105.

Little Flora, the author tells us, is designed 'to recommend gratitude, humanity, and universal good will: to discourage pride, cruelty, and gluttony.'

An interesting story is made the vehicle of moral lessons of the kind mentioned. The heroine, however, seems so uniformly and perfectly good, that her young admirers can have but few hopes of resembling her. Children need to be shown, now and then, how they may break off from foibles which they have indulged, or recover themselves from faults into which they have fallen.—In other respects, 'Little Flora' is a delightful and instructive tale, which cannot fail to cherish the better feelings of the young heart.

This author and those of the two preceding works, are pleasing instances of the happy adaptation of the female mind to the business of superintending the early cultivation of the disposition of children. The opening heart of infancy is a thing too delicate for the hand of man; none buta female can touch it successfully; and it is one of the most promising features of our times, that female talent is asserting its right, and taking charge of this interesting department of education.

TO CORRESPONDENTS.

We have been favored with some valuable suggestions by S. H. P. Our correspondent who uses this signature, will perceive that some of his ideas had been anticipated. For the rest, we return our respectful acknowledgements, with a hope that he will see his expectations realised, in the speedy establishment of a proper vehicle for the wide diffusion of correct ideas on the great subject of political economy.

We have received from Capt. Partridge, Principal of the Military Academy, Middletown, a letter containing some highly valuable thoughts on education, along with a pamphlet furnishing an account of his interesting seminary, to which we shall embrace the earliest opportunity of inviting the attention of our readers. We owe Capt. Partridge our best thanks for his prompt and kind attention to our queries, and hope that the heads of other institutions will also put it in our power, as early as possible, to record their plans and regulations.

Some books, of which we should have been happy to give a notice, were received too late for the present number. They will be duly attended to in our next.

An article of intelligence on the Boston Scientific Library, was prepared for our present number; but we regret to find ourselves compelled to postpone it, till the publication of No. 3.

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ACCOUNT OF THE SYSTEM OF INFANT SCHOOLS.

(Continued from p. 72.)

Subjects of Instruction in an Infant School.

It cannot be too frequently urged upon those who have the care of the education of infants, that the *quantity* of knowledge which it is possible to communicate to the mind, is a question of the least importance. The present intellectual capacity of children, is not therefore a suitable measure of the instruction which may be given.

In the education of infants, three objects must be kept in view, as guides to the superintendent in his selection of the subjects of instruction. The first object of infant education, is, *to bring the mind itself into action, and to improve its faculties.* The second is, *to prepare the child for the discipline of the schools in which he may be destined to pursue his education, after he has left the infant establishment;* and the third, *to improve the tone of his bodily powers and health*, in order to the removal of the natural impediments which might oppose themselves to the progress of his proposed education.

In discussing the subjects of instruction which are suggested by the first of these, I will suppose, that whatever other mental powers may offer themselves to general education in man, as an intellectual and moral being, there are four which seem to be peculiarly within the province of the system which we are now considering. We must propose to ourselves to improve the *memory*, the *judgement*, the *conscience*, and the *heart*.

Among other things, then, which will hereafter be mentioned, the memory of an infant may with excellent effect be exercised in the attainment of some of the more simple principles of number, or the

various useful tables; in learning some of the more plain moral precepts, the more simple texts of scripture, or hymns in the plainest and most familiar language; together with whatever else may, in the judgement of the teacher, be calculated to aid the future efforts of the child, in the attainment of knowledge.

The teacher can be at no loss for subjects of instruction. He may commence, however, from those things which are present with the senses, which convey directly ideas to the mind, through the eye, or the ear, or the touch. He may next proceed to those which are absent; and, in the progress of his attempt to call this faculty of his little school into correct action, he may at last suggest to their inquiring minds those things which are contingent or possible. Color, form, posture, and other accidents of things, may be the subjects of idea, of comparison, and of judgement. The room around him, the garden, the fields, the common instruments of a life of labor, will offer those things on which he may lead forth the early energies of the infant. The arts also, as far as they may possibly be subject to the observation of a passing child, and the trades, by which the sustenance of their families is obtained, may in succession be brought forward; and he may be taught to think accurately, and, according to his capacity and the small range of language which is possessed by him, to define correctly.

Moral powers.—Some difference of opinion seems to exist on the best mode of cultivating the moral powers in the early age of infancy. The question is one of the utmost importance, and one on which the success or failure, the benefit or the uselessness of the system of infant schools very materially depends. It cannot then be doubted, I presume, that howsoever ignorant children may be of the particulars of true morals, there is a certain consciousness of right and wrong, which is coeval with the first rays of rational light in the mind. It is the business of true morality to give practical force to these incipient energies, and to bring the habitual pursuit of that which is right, and the habitual avoidance of that which is wrong, to form a constituent part of the active life of the future man; for it is contrary to all just analogy to believe that, although all other human faculties are capable of cultivation and improvement, the conscience will approach to its perfection without adventitious aid. It would have been well for human society, if the correction of this faculty had, at all times, formed one principal object in the education of the young; and if it had thus kept pace with the improvement of the intellectual powers, and the strength and energy which have been given to the memory.

Now, although the mind of infants, at the early age at which they are admitted into these schools, is not capable of the intellectual reception of religion, as a system of doctrines, it may never-

theless be made the very principal part of their education, so far as it is an influence, as it offers to us a record of interesting facts and examples, as *it is a principle of the earlier duties of life*, as it suggests and enforces those actions which are suitable to the stage of infancy, and as it is adapted to the earliest convictions of the moral powers.

The Heart.—When I speak, further, of the cultivation of the heart, I intend by that term the seat or fountain of the passions and the desires. As a subject of education, the question here solves itself into those of self-knowledge and self-restraint. We have gained but little in the moral culture of a child, when we have brought him to start from evil only from fear of its consequences, or to regard the eye of a parent or a teacher, while he is unconscious of the sacred impression of the acknowledged presence of God. Even habitual self-constraint, on these qualified principles, is very far from being the most complete victory which may be obtained. The judicious teacher will endeavor to instruct his children in self-government on the most simple principles of religion. He will deliver the heart into the active custody of the enlightened conscience. His lessons on self-government will not be confined to the moment of evil excitation; but when the surface is calm, and when the mind is conscious that pleasurable feelings are to be preserved only while the passions are allayed; then he will instruct them in the difficult lesson; and he will, with every hope of success, illustrate his instruction by the motives which are to be derived from the examples of the sacred scriptures, both on one side and on the other.

The remarks which have been hitherto made on the subject of instruction in an infant school, have related to the cultivation of the mind, and the improvement of its faculties. It is impossible, I would hope, to doubt, that if their education were to be confined, even within these limits, the children would, in many important particulars, be far better prepared for the schools to which they may be afterwards sent, than they could be without the intervention of such an establishment. We are now to regard this system as preparatory to the parochial schools. It is indeed most highly desirable to make them so, and the system is eminently suitable to that purpose. The subjects of instruction in the parochial schools, are, upon the whole, the best which can be chosen for infant schools. They are there taught reading, religious knowledge, arithmetic, and writing. The difference does not consist so much in the outline as in the manner of filling it up.

The Scriptures.—In applying this course of remark to the sacred volume, the range which is before us is far more extensive.

The knowledge of the scriptures is one of the principal objects of the instruction in our parochial schools. To this point, also, the education followed in the infant schools is directed, almost without the hope that any more than the first class, at most, shall be able to read any part of them with propriety. The mind of the infant is, however, constantly preparing for this desirable acquisition. In order to aid them in the technical use of the sacred volume, they commit to memory the names and the order of the various books; the number of chapters in each, and, in some instances, the prtncipal subjects of the chapters. As an aid to the formal understanding of the contents of the scriptures, they are introduced to a knowledge of the narratives which are there to be found; the natural history of its animals; and its various tables, as compared with our own modes of calculation. And it is presumed, that it may lead to a farther understanding of their purpose and intention, when they are informed of some of the more simple customs of the eastern countries; when the emblems and figures of scripture are brought before their eyes, in the course of nature around them; and when the events of their own life are adduced, as illustrative of some of its more important truths and commands.

Arithmetic.—We may follow the same course of remark concerning the subject of arithmetic.

With the exception of the first class, which should, as much as possible, be assimilated to those of the higher schools, arithmetic, as such, does not form part of this system. It is proposed, rather to prepare the mind of the children for this study, than to communicate the art itself. For this purpose, the principal effort which is made, is in the learning of number in its more simple combinations and proportions. Short calculations, which may be made without the aid of the pencil, will naturally follow upon this, both as an exercise of the power which has been communicated in the acquirement of number, and as a nearer approach to the art.

To these are added, the various useful tables which must be committed to memory, before any progress in arithmetic can be made.

It will be perceived, that the first of the foregoing processes, the acquirement of number, confers a twofold benefit. It strengthens the mind itself, expands the faculties, and is an easy mode of exciting the learner to the exercise of thought, while it prepares him, in the most effectual manner, for the arithmetical art. The latter has principal reference to his progress in higher schools.

Writing.—It may be said of writing also, with the same exception of the first class, that, as a distinct art, it does not form part of the system of infant education. Letters may be reduced to elementary forms, which may be traced by the eye of the child, and imitated

without any considerable effort. He will thus have acquired almost insensibly, the incipiency of the art itself; and, when it may be thought right thus far to instruct him, he will, with perfect ease, proceed to form and to combine the letters of the alphabet, and to write.

It will not be imagined, I presume, that it is proposed in this system, to place the subjects which have been mentioned indiscriminately before the minds of all the little assembly which may have met under the roof of an infant establishment. The children are admitted into these schools from the age of two, to that of their entrance into the parochial institutions, which is generally six or seven. They are therefore under the guidance of their first teacher during an average period of four years. If he be judicious, it will be in his bosom to arrange the subjects of instruction according to their age and capacities, and the progress of their education. On the first admission of a child, it may occupy some considerable period, for the little mind to accustom itself to the novel circumstances around it, and to catch the idea of the purpose for which it is there introduced. Quiet observation will soon assist the teacher in determining the place which the infant is to hold in the order of the system; and he will not think the time lost, if weeks, or even months, are at first passed over without further progress than is made in the acquirement of order and attention.

Health.—I have placed health among the principal objects of a superintendent of an infant school, not only because this is confessedly of the very first importance in children of the age to be admitted into these institutions, but also because the purposes of the system cannot possibly be answered without it. The system fails when the little assembly begins to lose the influence of vivacity and cheerfulness, and a lesson is not rightly taught, if it have not been received with real pleasure by the pupil. With a view then to this excellent object, muscular action is made a component and necessary part of the system. Every lesson is accompanied with some movement of the person. And these movements are so varied, that, in turn, the whole frame is at different periods called into action and restored to rest. The beat of the foot, the clap with the hands, the extension of the arms, with various other postures, are measures of the utterance of the lesson as they proceed. The position is also frequently changed. The infants learn sitting, standing, or walking. And when the lesson has ceased, and there is a pause before the commencement of that which is to follow, the period is given either to absolute rest and silence, to some simple air, or to the performance of some evolution, under the guidance, and after the example, of the monitor of their class. For a similar purpose a play-ground or garden is attached, wherever that may

be possible, to the school-room; and for half an hour during each school time, when the weather is suitable, the little flock is turned out for amusement and play. There are, indeed, many of the lessons in which their minds are called into action, which may as well, and even with better effect, during the months of the summer, be taught in the open air, within view of the book of nature. But, should the weather be unfavorable to these recreations, and this mode of instruction, the ample space of the school-room affords every opportunity for sufficient exercise, and especial care is at all times taken to replenish it with the purest atmosphere, without exposing the little assembly to draughts.

I may add to the foregoing, as in its measure conducive to the increase of the health of the infants, the frequently recurring lessons of cleanliness which are given to them.

The success of these attempts to confirm the health of the infants, in the establishments whose system we now consider, is not any longer a question of theory. They have stood the test of experience, and the result has been in every respect satisfactory. With the exception of the peculiar diseases of children, whose absence no system can possibly secure, health and cheerfulness have universally followed upon a constant attendance of the children at these institutions.

(To be continued.)

MECHANICS' INSTITUTIONS.

[Most subjects in which we can trace the progress of the human mind, present one point of resemblance: they show, here and there, an individual penetrating far beyond his contemporaries, and anticipating improvements which become the boast of posterity. The history of education furnishes a striking instance of this kind, in Dr. Anderson, who is now justly regarded as the founder of mechanics' institutions. This enlightened and philanthropic individual was distinguished for the zeal with which he prosecuted his researches in natural philosophy, and the pleasure which he took in diffusing a taste for this branch of science, at a time when it was far from being so popular as it is now.

Dr. Anderson was eminent as a professor; but his attachment to the subject of his lectures was not that merely which grew out of his office. He was earnestly desirous that useful science should be universally studied. He saw its vast importance to every class of the community. He regarded its confinement within the walls of a college as a serious injury to society. He foresaw, in particular,

the approaching universal demand for physical science; and it is to this circumstance that we trace its introduction into the liberal and comprehensive plan which he devised for the foundation of a circle of professional schools.

One of the departments of the seminary, which was founded by Dr. Anderson, proved the germ of the mechanics' institutions which have recently been established in almost every town in Great Britain. A brief sketch, therefore, of the institution established by the liberality of Dr. Anderson, will, we think, form a suitable introduction to the main subject of our present article.]

Anderson's Institution was incorporated, on June 9th, 1796, by a charter from the magistrates of the city. It was established by the late Mr. John Anderson, professor of natural philosophy in the university of Glasgow, who, by his will, endowed it with his valuable philosophical apparatus, museum, and library. It was placed under the inspection and control of the Lord Provost, and other magistrates, the president of the Faculty of physicians and surgeons, the dean of the procurators, and the moderators of the synod of Glasgow and Ayr, and of the presbyteries of Glasgow and Dunbarton. The immediate superintendence is vested in eighty-one trustees, consisting of gentlemen conversant with the arts and sciences; from these, nine persons are elected annually, to whom the principal part of the management is committed.

The views of the venerable founder of this scientific seminary embraced a complete circle of liberal education, adapted to the present improved state of society. His intentions were directed towards the establishment of four colleges, viz. one of arts, one of medicine, another of law, and a fourth of theology. Circumstances, however, have hitherto limited the plan to physical science, comprehending natural philosophy, chemistry, materia medica, and pharmacy. There is also a mechanics' class, to which a considerable library is appropriated.

In 1798, the managers of the institution purchased a building in John-street. In this they fitted up a spacious circular hall forty-five feet in diameter, which can accommodate five hundred auditors. There are likewise other apartments and conveniences for containing the library, museum, and apparatus. To the original stock of these, considerable additions have been made, by donation and purchase; and the managers have also procured every article necessary for furnishing complete illustrations of experimental philosophy and chemistry.

The collection of models and apparatus, in this seminary, is very extensive and various, and has been essentially useful in promoting the public improvement. The school also exhibits a peculiar trait,

by affording to all ranks, and either sex, an easy access to the principles of philosophy.

Popular and scientific lectures were first given in the institution, by the late Dr. Thomas Garnett. He was succeeded by Dr. George Birbeck, who added a course of geography and astronomy, and another, upon a plain and elementary plan, for the advantage of persons engaged in mechanic and chemical arts. The professorship of natural philosophy and chemistry is at present filled by Dr. Andrew Ure.

The mechanics' class had access, occasionally, to an astronomical observatory, of which we subjoin an account.

The observatory situated on Garnett-hill, was erected in 1810, from designs by Mr. Webster of London, in the Egyptian style of architecture, and is divided into three departments. The first forms a scientific observatory for the purpose of watching and recording the celestial phenomena, in order to promote the general interests of science. The second is popular, and furnished with every instrument capable of blending instruction with amusement. A camera-obscura apparatus, on a great scale, introduces a vivid representation of the surrounding landscape, composing a living, moving, and ever-varying panorama. Telescopes of different kinds display the magnificent host of heaven, while the solar microscope* reveals the other extreme of creation. The third department is dedicated to the accommodation of the subscribers. It is furnished with maps, charts, and globes, of the largest dimensions and finest execution, and also provided with valuable treatises on astronomy, navigation, and commerce. The meteorological instruments, destined to indicate with accuracy the existing state, and approaching changes, of the weather, are also arranged in this room. On an adjoining terrace, is placed the grand telescope of Herschel. To execute this plan, three thousand pounds were required. This sum was raised by one hundred and fifty shares of twenty pounds each. The share is heritable and transferable property. The construction, superintendence, and management, of the institution, is vested in the proprietors, or in a committee appointed by them at a general meeting.—*Picture of Glasgow.*

* The society has purchased from Mr. Dolland the largest solar microscope that optician has ever constructed. The first trial of this superb instrument disclosed some wonderful phenomena. Hundreds of insects were discovered devouring the body of a *gnat*, and scores had lived luxuriously for several months on the leg of a *moth*. These animalcules were magnified so as to appear nine inches long, their actual size being somewhat less than the fourteen hundreth part of an inch. The mineral kingdom afforded another display of brilliant objects: their crystallisation, and the splendor of their coloring, exceed any thing the most lively imagination can possibly conceive.

The mechanics' lecture at Anderson's Institution, had done much to diffuse among the artisans of Glasgow, a taste for natural philosophy, and particularly for chemistry; when the gas-light company commenced its operations.

The following extract from the London Mechanics' Magazine, contains matter which reflects great credit on the above mentioned company, and which forms a very interesting passage in the history of mechanics' institutions.

'The gas-light chartered company of this city (Glasgow) employ constantly between sixty and seventy men in their works. Twelve of these are mechanics, and the remainder furnace-men and common laborers of different descriptions, forming altogether a community not very promising as a body to be incited to adopt measures for their own intellectual improvement.

'A little more than three years ago, our manager at the works, Mr. James B. Nelson, proposed to these men to contribute each a small sum monthly, to be laid out in books to form a library for their common use; and he informed them that if they agreed to do this, the company would give them a room to keep their books in, which should be heated and lighted for them in winter, and in which they might meet every evening to read and converse, in place of going to the alehouse, as many of them had been in the practice of doing. That the company would further give them a present of five guineas to set out with; and that the management of the funds, library, and every thing connected with the measure, should be entrusted to a committee of themselves, to be named and renewed by them at certain fixed periods.

'With a good deal of persuasion Mr. Nelson got fourteen of them to agree to the plan; and a commencement was thus made. For the first two years, until it could be ascertained that the members would have a proper care of the books, it was agreed that they should not take them out of the reading-room, but that they should meet there every evening to peruse them. After this period, however, the members were allowed to take the books home; and last year they met only twice a week at the reading-room to change them, and converse on what they had been reading. The increase of the number of subscribers to the library was at first very slow, and at the end of the second year, the whole did not amount to thirty. But from conversing with one another twice a week at the library, upon the acquisitions they had been making, a taste for science and a desire for information began to spread among them.

'They had, a little before this time, got an atlas, which, they say, led them to think of purchasing a pair of globes; and one from among themselves, Alexander Anderson, by trade a joiner, who had had the advantage of attending two courses of the lectures in the

Andersonian Institution, volunteered, about the beginning of last winter, to explain, on Monday evenings, the use of the globes. Finding himself succeed in doing this, he offered to give them, on Thursday evenings, an account of some of the principles and processes in mechanics and chemistry, accompanied with a few experiments. This he effected with a simplicity of illustration and usefulness of purpose that was delightful. He next, and while this was going on, undertook, along with another of the workmen, to attend in the reading-room, during the other evenings of the week, and teach such of the members as chose, arithmetic.

'For the business of the present season, the members of the society (who conduct every thing themselves) have made a new arrangement. The individuals of the committee have come under an agreement to give in rotation a lecture, either in chemistry or mechanics, every Thursday evening; taking Murray for their text-book in the one, and Ferguson in the other. They intimate, a fortnight before, to the person whose turn it is, that he is to lecture from such a page to such a page of one of these authors. He has, in consequence, then fourteen days to make himself acquainted with his subject, and he is authorised to claim, during that period, the assistance of every member of the society in preparing the chemical experiments, or making the little models of machines required for illustrating his discourse.

'The effect of all that I have been relating has been most beneficial to the general character and happiness of these individuals; and we may readily conceive what a valuable part of the community they are likely to become, and what the state of the whole of our manufacturing population would be, if the people employed in every large work were enabled to adopt similar measures.

'The gas-light company, seeing the beneficial consequences resulting from the instruction of their work people, have fitted up for them, this winter, a more commodious room to meet in for their lectures, with a small laboratory and workshop attached to it, where they can conduct their experiments and prepare the models to be used in the lectures. The men last year made for themselves an air-pump and an electrifying machine, and some of them are constantly engaged during their spare hours in the laboratory and workshop.

'The whole of the workmen, with the exception of about fifteen, have now become members of the society; and these have been standing out on the plea that they cannot read; they are men chiefly from the remote parts of the highlands or from Ireland: but the others say to them, 'Join us, and we shall teach you to read;' and I have no doubt of their persuading them to do so.

'The rules of the society, which have been framed by the members themselves, are simple and judicious. Every person, on becoming a member, pays 7*s.* 6*d.* entry money. This sum is taken from him by instalments, and is paid back to him should he leave the gas-works, or to his family or heirs, should he die. Besides this entrance money, each member contributes three half-pence weekly, two-thirds of which, by a rule made this year, go to the library, and one-third to the use of the laboratory and workshop. By a rule made at the same time, which I think a curious indication of the state of feeling produced in these men in the short period since the commencement of the society, the members may bring to the lectures any of their sons who are above seven and under twenty-one years of age.

'The books now amount to above three hundred volumes, and consist of elementary works of science, and of history, voyages, and travels; some of the standard poets, a few of our best novels, and Shakspeare's works. The selection of the books purchased by the library funds is, in general, creditable to the members of the society. They admit no books on religion. The members say that there are among them men of a variety of persuasions—presbyterians, seceders, methodists, Church of England men, and Roman catholics; each of whom would be for introducing books connected with their particular opinions, and thus give occasion to endless unprofitable disputes.'

The following extract from the Quarterly Review gives an account of the progress of science, among the mechanics of Edinburgh, London, and other places.

'In 1821, a few gentlemen in Edinburgh, who were disposed to encourage the experiment, circulated a prospectus among the mechanics, announcing the commencement of a course of lectures on mechanics, and another on chemistry, with the opening of a library of books on the same subject, for perusal at home as well as in the room; the hours of lecture to be from eight to nine in the evening, twice a week for six months; and the terms of admission to both lectures and library fifteen shillings a year. When 400 mechanics had purchased tickets, the two courses of lectures were delivered by Dr. Forbes and Mr. Galbraith; with the addition of one on architecture, and one on farriery, and of a class for architectural and mechanical drawing during the summer recess.'

In 1822, the editors of the Mechanics' Magazine invited the attention of their readers to these institutions.

'We are desirous,' they say, 'of seeing a London Mechanics' Institute established by the mechanics of the metropolis themselves.

It is so obvious that it will be for the interest of the mechanics, if, instead of assembling at a pot-house in an evening, besotting themselves with the fumes of tobacco and draughts of porter, stupifying their minds, and bringing disease on their bodies, rendering themselves more abject than the circumstances of society, which are painful enough, will render them; we say it would be so much for their interest, if they were to meet in large and well-aired rooms, and endeavor to acquire a knowledge at a cheap rate of the elements of science; that we do not doubt their ultimately, and of themselves, establishing the London Mechanics' Institute.'

'The formation of a society soon followed this address; and in the course of the year 1824, as we learn from Mr. Brougham's pamphlet, lectures were delivered by Mr. Phillips on chemistry, Mr. Dotchin on geometry, Dr. Birkbeck, on hydrostatics, Mr. Cooper on the application of chemistry to the arts, Mr. Newton on astronomy, Mr. Tatum on electricity, and Mr. Black on the French language, to great and increasing numbers of workmen. About a thousand now belong to the Institution, and pay twenty shillings a year.*

'Similar institutions are at the present time established, or on the point of being established, in almost every town in England whose population reaches 10,000, and in some of much smaller numbers. Publications intended for the use of mechanics, and unintelligible without some knowledge of natural philosophy and mathematics, have a wide and increasing circulation. Every thing indicates a growing spirit of inquiry, an increased desire, and with it an increased power of acquiring knowledge.'

The Edinburgh Review for August 1825, contains the following information concerning the rapid increase of mechanics' institutions in England.

'The desire of knowledge spreads with each effort made to satisfy it. The sacred thirst of science is becoming epidemic; and we look forward to the day when the laws of matter and of mind shall be known to all men; when an acquaintance with them shall no longer be deemed, as heretofore, the distinction of a few superior minds; any more than being able to read or write now constitutes, as it once did, the title to scholarship.

'In all, or almost all, the institutions lately formed, it is truly gratifying to observe the sound principles which have been adopted. The whole body of contributors and subscribers are on the same footing of members and proprietors; the management is entrusted to committees, of which two-thirds, at the least, must be working mechanics; and the funds are, as much as possible, raised by the sub-

* Practical Observations, p. 21.

scriptions of the working classes, in order to secure the permanency of the institutions, and to avoid the feeling of dependence. These are the true fundamental principles of this important system. They are all recognised in the rules of the Ashton establishment now before us; and the last of the three is well commented upon in Mr. Hindley's address. 'You are not' (says he) 'to imagine that this institution is, in the common acceptation of the word, a charitable one; that it is an offering on the part of the rich and the learned, to the poor and the ignorant. No! it is an institution which requires from all its members value received in return for the advantages it offers. The higher classes of society come forward at first to extend the hand of *encouragement*, not of *charity;* and the feeling with which that encouragement is received on the part of the poor, needs have no mixture of the dependence and the shame which is always the companion of the almsman on the rich man's bounty.

'The example of the original London institution has, as might be expected, been followed in the metropolis. Under the auspices of Mr. Gibson, and other most respectable individuals, an institution has been formed for the eastern parts of the city, in the Spitalfields district; and we believe that steps have been taken to establish one in Southwark.

'Among the remoter parts of the country, Northumberland certainly stands conspicuous. Mr. Losh, the zealous and enlightened friend of every good work, himself a man filled with various and useful knowledge, and whom an habitual love of classical literature has only made the more anxious for the education of the people—Mr. Turner, who, among the first, years ago opened the doors of his lecture-room to the mechanics, and who is not more distinguished as a pious and learned divine, than as an acute natural philosopher; with others whose names would, had we space, adorn our pages, have so strenuously exerted themselves in this great labor, that we understand there is not now a single market-town in the country without a mechanics' institution, excepting Afton; and there, proceedings have been commenced for founding one. The gratuitous lectures of Mr. Turner at Newcastle are very numerously attended by the mechanics, whose attention and regularity are highly commended by the learned professor. How truly *pious* is this discharge of his duty! How greatly to be esteemed, beyond the waste of temper, as well as of precious time, in bootless controversy! How infinitely to be prized, before the base and sordid spirit that seeks emolument by affecting a zeal about civil or ecclesiastical distinctions, or licking the dust trodden under the feet of those who hold the keys of preferment!

'The suggestions that had been circulated from London through the country, have been effectual to another good purpose; the extension of similar associations to country laborers as well as artisans. Farmers' book-clubs have been formed in several places; and we trust that the excellent plan of circulating libraries, adopted in East Lothian, that is, libraries which are transferred from one village to another in succession, and used by the inhabitants both of the villages and the neighboring country, will be imitated elsewhere.

'The system indeed appears to be working in every direction, and in remote and inconsiderable places. In spring, a beginning was made at Newport, in the Isle of Wight, a town of very moderate size, containing only about 4000 inhabitants. A Tradesman's and Mechanic's Library was formed, under very judicious regulations; the subscription being six shillings a year, or 1*s.* 6*d.* per quarter. The number of members soon exceeded 200; and by means of donations, the library in a few months consisted of 500 volumes. There is nothing more useful than to promote the practice of such donations. Almost every man who has a few shelves full of books, has some volume or two useless to him, either as duplicates, early editions, or works the contents of which others present in a better form. The movers in founding an institution, should bestir themselves to obtain gifts of these books, which are invaluable as the beginnings of a library, and of no value to the owners. Lectures have been added at Newport, by the worthy and enlightened secretary, Mr. Abraham Clarke; and others have signified their intention of taking a similar part. In truth, it requires no professional lecturer to perform this important office. He who has learnt—even he who *is learning* chemistry, natural philosophy, or natural history himself, may render the greatest service in explaining those sciences to others who have not the same leisure, or the same command of teachers, books, and apparatus. In the Newport Society, all subscribers are members; and two-thirds of the Committee of Management are mechanics, according to the just principles.

'Meanwhile the central establishment in London has flourished beyond the most sanguine expectations of its enlightened supporters. The foundation of the theatre was laid about Christmas; and on the 8th of July it was completed and opened by the distinguished founder, Dr. Birkbeck, supported by his royal highness the Duke of Sussex, the Marquis of Lansdown, Sir R. Wilson, Messrs. Brougham, Wood, Hume, Martin, and other zealous friends of popular education; some of whom addressed the meeting, after the Doctor had closed his admirable lecture. The premises are spacious, and elegant, though perfectly simple,—consisting of a commodious house, in which there are large apartments for the library, appara-

tus, reading-rooms, and the secretary and other officers. The theatre is a fine and lofty hall, where above a thousand students can easily be accommodated. The lecture of the learned President was a most interesting dissertation upon the advantages of intellectual pursuits, and contained many anecdotes of the shameful ignorance which in former times pervaded all ranks, even the highest in the state. It is to be wished that this discourse, or the substance of it, should be published, both in remembrance of the occasion upon which it was pronounced, and for its intrinsic usefulness. We have called Dr. Birkbeck the founder of this building; and well we may, for he advanced the money (several thousand pounds) which purchased the house and erected the theatre. Other magnificent donations, (especially Sir Francis Burdett's of a thousand pounds, and that of his able, accomplished, and excellent colleague, Mr. Hobhouse, of a hundred,) have been duly appreciated by the country. It is, however, only just to the working mechanics themselves to state, what we have good reason to know, that had no such helps been at hand, they were firmly resolved to raise the needful sums among their own body; and from their numbers and respectability, there can be no doubt that, in a few months, they would have accomplished this favorite object.

'Statements of a most cheering nature were at the same time communicated to the meeting, evincing the happy effects produced throughout the country by the example of the metropolis. Bath, which, from the composition of its population, might not have been expected to join so early as many other places, in this noble struggle for liberating the people from 'the thraldom of ignorance,' as Milton calls it, had established a mechanics' institution, under the happiest auspices. Liverpool had added lectures to her excellent mechanics' library and reading rooms. A beginning had been made at Birmingham, (where undoubtedly an earlier attention to so congenial a plan might have been expected,) promising the best results, in that wonderful resort of skillful and industrious workmen. Leeds too, under the influence of two most able and worthy men, though of different sects in church as well as state affairs, Messrs. Marshall* and Galt, had founded an extensive and thriving institution. And it was further reported, that almost daily accounts arrived of similar efforts in the same great cause, being attended with merited success. These articles of what may truly be termed philosophical intelligence, diffused the most lively satisfaction through that most numerous and respectable meeting; and we devoutly hope, that before another anniversary shall be holden of the parent institution, her offspring will have increased as the sands of the sea.

* Mr. Marshall has published an admirable summary of Political Philosophy for Artisans, in a cheap and compendious form.

To promote this most desirable end, it has been often announced by the promoters of the institutions already founded, and especially by those of the London institution, that they will most willingly lend every assistance in their power, giving whatever information may be required as to the steps best to be taken, and the difficulties which, in distant places, may obstruct such designs.'

PROPOSED INSTITUTION IN MASSACHUSETTS.

(Continued from p. 95.)

We now proceed to mention those provisions for the school, which will require expense, and which will of course involve an inquiry into the necessary funds; and here we may again remark, that as to many of these particulars, they must, in the first instance, be left to the discretion of that body, in whose hands shall be entrusted the organisation of the school.—There will be required,

1st.—*A Site for building.*

A *farm and garden.*—The quantity of land, we suppose to be fifty acres; certainly not more than one hundred. This land is not to be obtained at the expense of the State, but to proceed from the bounty of the town and vicinity in which the location shall be. —The commissioners have no doubt, that many towns in the State, would give a much larger boon, for the advantage of the location.

2d.—*Buildings.*

They propose, that there shall be *one or two principal buildings*, as shall be found most convenient, to furnish accommodation for lecture rooms, recitation rooms, public expenses of every kind, rooms for philosophical and chemical apparatus, for botanical and mineralogical exhibitions, and for the library, models, plans, drawings, &c. The expense of the principal building, or buildings, not to exceed fifteen thousand dollars, including the necessary *work-shops*, out-buildings, and fences. Work-shops, in which the pupils may learn something of the common mechanical operations, are an indispensable part of the plan. These combine profit, pleasure, and health. This rejects the idea of buildings, to serve as *dormitories*, or to furnish accommodations for *commons*, neither of which are deemed necessary; on the contrary, the commissioners leave out so much of that system of supervision, which now prevails, as requires, that the pupils should be under the eye of the teachers, and for that purpose demands buildings, sufficient to fur-

nish eating and sleeping apartments. They do not deem it applicable to these schools. There is much to be said, on both sides of this question. One thing, however, may be observed; and that is, that in those schools, which are resorted to, principally by young men coming out of the laboring classes, who are enured to habits of sobriety and industry, and who feel a deep conviction that industry is their only resource, there will be found the best discipline, and the best morals. Necessity has been said to be the mother of industry: decent, orderly behavior, belongs to the same family. The example of the morals of the school which is proposed, we do not believe, will be lost elsewhere.

3d. *Books.*—4th. *Philosophical Apparatus.*—5th. *Chemical Apparatus.*—6th. *Maps, Charts, Globes.*—7th. *Models, Plans, Drawings.*—8th. *Tools, and Mechanical Exhibitions.*—9th. *Mineralogical and Botanical Exhibitions and Specimens.*

For these several items, the commissioners propose, an expenditure of fifteen thousand dollars. Thus far, we have an expenditure of thirty thousand dollars.

It is very obvious, that this appropriation for these various objects, is small; but will, we think, enable the school to go into successful operation. The commissioners in proposing an appropriation so limited, have a distinct view to an extension of the number of the schools.

10th. *Teachers.*

A school, like every other thing, must have a beginning. Though the commissioners intend to propose the plan of a school such as they think should be endowed by the State; still it must be obvious to all, that in an untried system, many things must be left to time, to develope its actual wants; to ascertain what revenues will be wanted, and how they shall be best applied. The truth of this observation can be nowhere more apparent, than in reference to the subject of *teachers.* That must be a bad school, where the *teachers* are incompetent, whatever other provisions may be made for it. For this school, the commissioners propose, as the very first object, the best qualified instructers and managers. This should be a *sine qua non:* the success of the experiment depends upon it. They believe that ultimately, and in a short time, the school will support itself. It cannot be expected, that this will be the case, upon its opening.

Gratuitous Instruction, is no part of the plan.—This would not be just, in regard to that portion of the community, who cannot avail themselves of the benefit of it, nor would it be expedient, in reference to those who may. The sons of respectable farmers, mechanics, and merchants, cannot expect to be educated at the ex-

pense of the State. There are at present, in the colleges of Massachusetts more than five hundred students. If the number of two hundred be supposed in this institution, at twenty dollars as annual tuition fees, it will give four thousand dollars. At twenty-five dollars, five thousand. The commissioners believe, that the number would in a short time, be much greater; and they think, that something near the sum here named, should be the annual charge for instruction. But this is not all; the school contemplates, not only, the furnishing of instruction to those who shall go through a regular course of study, but also an opportunity to all, who shall resort to it for a less time than the established period, for the purpose of hearing lectures, and obtaining instruction, in particular departments; as for instance, in *practical mechanics*, *in chemistry*, and other branches of natural philosophy. All such would be charged a regular fee for the benefit of their instructers. These lectures will also be attended by numbers in the neighborhood of the schools, who would also pay some small sum for their tickets of admission.

It is well known that, in all seminaries of learning, there has been an objection to stated compensation no way depending upon the individual merit and assiduity of the instructer. In schools for common academical instruction, this arrangement may be unavoidable, but is by no means so in institutions upon the plan of these, where it is supposed, that individuals will resort, for that instruction which they may want in particular branches of business. The very existence of these schools, will very soon create in the neighborhood of them, a taste for liberal knowledge. There is nothing that grows faster, than such a taste, when it has opportunities for indulgence: it is because our people are debarred from such opportunities, that so little of it is apparent. Nothing can be more attractive, or more intelligible, than various experiments in natural philosophy, as applicable to the arts. When it is notorious that private schools are rising up on every side, which have no endowment whatever, and which depend for their existence upon individual exertion, and where, too, the teachers are paid so liberally, as to induce men of the best education to become instructers; the commissioners hope not to be thought extravagant in saying, that they have no doubt, that this school will ultimately support itself. At the same time, this for a while at least, must not be relied upon, because it is indispensable in the first instance, in order to procure competent men, that they should have a certain reliance for their salaries, upon funds that are subject to no contingencies. This must be upon the State, and the legislature must either create a fund, which will answer the purpose, or pledge itself to pay such sums, from time to time, as shall be required. The latter being thought most expedient, is proposed. This course is suggested because it is not

thought best for the State to raise a fund, which, in the end, may not be wanted. What deficiencies, after applying the tuition fees to the payment of the instructers, there may eventually be, or whether any, cannot now appear. The commissioners intentionally forbear to state, what number of instructers will be wanted, and the sum required for the payment of them. Their reasons are, that the subject is liable to contingencies; that the scale of instruction upon the opening of the school, may be greater or smaller, according to the will of the State, and still the main design of it be accomplished. These contingencies, whatever they may be, present no serious obstacle; because the State may in this particular, limit their bounty as to time and amount, in such a way as to be clearly within its ability. Besides, much must be left to the discretion of those, who shall have the first organisation of the school.

Thus far it appears, that a present disbursement of thirty thousand dollars will be required, and that the State will be obliged, in addition to that, to guarantee the necessary funds, for the payment of the teachers, until the school is in successful operation.

When we consider the various wants of such an institution, the ability of the State, its bounty to the colleges, this may be thought an insignificant sum, as a capital for the objects proposed. We think, however, that prudence and economy in the outset, will best suit the taste of our people; besides we think, that it is but justice to all parts of the State, that the present scale of expense, should comport with the extension of these schools, which we believe will be indispensable.

The commissioners now proceed to some general views of the subject, which are applicable to it in every form.

By the terms of the resolution the commissioners are required, 'to prepare and digest a system for a proper organisation of a fund, to be set apart for the purposes of education; showing the sources from which the same may be obtained, and the objects to which the same ought to be applied.'

The commissioners think, that they may be excused from the performance of any other duty, than that of suggesting, the necessary provision, for the funds of the proposed Institution, without going into a general inquiry, of what ought to be the policy of the State, upon the subject at large. Indeed, the resolution could not have contemplated this; because though *common schools* are doubtless the first object, the commissioners are not furnished with the necessary facts, to enable them to propose any thing upon that subject. The resolution in terms does not require it; besides, without these facts as to the present state of the schools, no plan in regard to any further provision for them, could possibly be satisfactory. When the present resolution was adopted, various propositions

were offered in the committee, as to making an inquiry in regard to the support of common schools, a part of the duty of the commissioners, which upon consideration were abandoned, and because, it was thought, that the subjects had no necessary connection with each other.

As this is a topic, which does in fact present some difficulty, and indeed the only practical one, of any extent, the commissioners beg leave to present their views at large upon it.

In regard to the value of common schools, there is no longer any difference of opinion, and the commissioners would regret to have it thought, that they are deficient in the common sensibility that prevails in respect to them. It is unquestionably the first concern, and so they consider it, even in reference to the project now presented. Any plan, therefore, which contemplates patronage for the *higher* branches of education, to the neglect of the *common*, or for the rich to the exclusion of the poor, cannot, and ought not to receive favor. He who has a just regard for the safety, and honor of his country, will see, that *here* must be no neglected class, and above all that that class must not be the poor; that nothing can secure us from the vices and miseries of other countries, but such a system of education, as will inspire all with a sentiment of self respect, and a common feeling of sympathy in the fortunes and happiness of each other. It is this fellow feeling, arising from a deep sense of the equality of privilege, that is the foundation of the safety of free governments. The only question of a practical kind is, in what way the various wants of the State can best be subserved. Some States have been able to make such liberal grants for their schools, that common education among them, is now nearly, if not wholly *gratuitous*. This may possibly be best for them, but we think not for us. *Connecticut*, considering its population, has made by far the greatest grants, for common schools. With these grants, if we are not misinformed, effort has ended in these schools; and little is done by the people. This is the danger of that system, and it is a question of deep concern, to what extent we ought to adopt it. In the State of *New-York*, a great fund has been provided. Considering her new unfurnished settlements, in many parts her sparse population, a provision such as she has made, might be indispensable. This is not our condition. Another thing is to be considered; if they have done much as *States*, the question is, how much have we done in our *towns;* and when this inquiry comes to be made, we think it will appear, that we have not dishonored ourselves; on the contrary, that our provisions are not less liberal than theirs. This investigation should be made: indeed every other, that will show the actual state of our schools, and what is left to be done. At present, there are defects, to be sup-

plied; to this we are not to shut up our eyes. Some towns are poor; in some that are more competent, the provision for schools is inadequate: in others, the school districts are badly apportioned. It is a knowledge of these facts in regard to particular places, that has created an opinion in many persons, that the public guardians are grossly inattentive to this great concern. In what manner the State shall remedy these evils, is a question which it will be useful to consider, though unnecessary here to discuss at large. A law which should compel the towns, from time to time, to exhibit a state of their schools, would alone do something to effect the object. Public opinion would, in this way, determine the duties of the respective towns, and in a measure at least, force a compliance with them. For these reasons, we should be sorry to see a system of entirely gratuitous instruction provided for the people. Though we may call it *gratuitous*, we must not impose upon ourselves by a name; for every provision by governments for schools, must be made out of the aggregate wealth of the community; it is only the diversion of so much money from one object to another; and though we should erect a school fund, it would be a tax to that amount, and no less a tax than at present. The necessary and proper provision for schools, is a thing local in its nature, and while the principle is unquestionable that such matters are generally best regulated by those whom it immediately concerns, a principle which we have carried into all our institutions, still this does not exclude altogether the idea that the public at large, are bound to take care of those, who from ignorance or wilful neglect, show an entire indifference, as well to their own interests, as to those of the community. It would seem certain, with few exceptions, that if every town would do its duty, in proportion to its ability, the most equal and efficient taxation for common schools, must be that raised by the respective towns, and disbursed by them under all the advantages of a local knowledge, which it is impossible for a State or its agents to possess. We trust, therefore, that whatever the State shall hereafter think it expedient to do, they will, in no event, run into the error of attempting to relieve the towns from the responsibility of taking that care of the schools, which necessarily forces upon individuals, the high and interesting duty of a personal inspection and care of them. Besides, that the State will adopt no principle of providing for common schools, which does not force upon the towns, as a general rule, a proportionate provision to be made by them. We trust that these observations will not be considered out of place, and the more so, as they lead to a discussion of the other branch of the subject; that is, the importance of the proposed Institution, to these common schools; and the commissioners deceive themselves, if it cannot be made apparent, that the State can do

nothing in any other way, with any thing like the same expense, that will so directly and efficiently benefit common schools. This indeed is the strong ground upon which the project stands before the public, in claiming its favor, not of this or that class, but of all, rich and poor.

The standard of knowledge and taste in the common schools, does not comport with the spirit of the age. Adam Smith, in his "Wealth of Nations," proposed fifty years ago, that the elementary parts of *Geometry and Mechanics*, should be taught in the common schools. We want that, which Bolivar has adopted as Dictator of the Peruvian Republic, a *nursery for schoolmasters*. Good schools are produced by good teachers, who have a knowledge of good books. The schoolmasters now, are many of them young men, who are fitting for college, or who resort to school-keeping while there, as a temporary resource, or after having left college, for the same object. In either event, it is not an employment upon which they rely for any length of time; and it is the case in this as in every other occupation, that nothing but long devotion to it, can furnish the necessary qualifications. The youth, inexperience, and, in many instances, even very imperfect English education of these instructers, render them totally unfit to fill a place, which in fact is one of great responsibility. Now, though it be true, that we are not yet in a state in which we can expect to find a class of professional, thorough, regularly-bred schoolmasters, devoted to that business alone, and making that the occupation of their lives; still it is true that we are approaching to that condition. It is the natural progress of things. Teaching, to a certain extent, has already become a profession, in the *higher* schools. So it is in the large towns, in *common* schools. Twenty five years ago it was not so, even in the colleges.

Will the people of this State, or ought they to be content to see every thing else advance, and their common schools remain stationary? Any one who knows any thing of schools, knows that the time of an intelligent child, is in a great measure wasted, who spends it in the present very imperfect manner upon his arithmetic, his writing copies, his spelling book, his reader's assistant, and some smattering of geography, (this is about all) from three and four years of age, to twelve and fifteen, when he leaves the school. This is now unavoidable, because we have no other standard: we have neither teachers for more, nor books that are known in those schools. Still there are, however, excellent manuals in chemistry, natural philosophy and political economy, containing most of the great principles of these sciences, and perfectly intelligible to youth within those ages. To these children, however, they are sealed books. These manuals are put into the hands of the children of

the rich, who spare no expense in their education: it is known, how lavish they are in this, compared with other expenditures; they are right, too, for it is in this way only, that they can maintain their rank in society. No man is at liberty to abandon the rational privileges which God has given him in opportunities of superior knowledge. It is plain, that the mass of our people, have not a just sensibility upon this subject. It is the duty of their legislators to inspire them with it. As the taste for a higher and better education advances, books will be written and provided, to gratify that taste: the demand for them will create them. These books will, as they should, come out of the genius of our own country, illustrate our history, pourtray our manners, expose our peculiar vices and follies, and teach that which belongs to us, as a free and privileged people. Now we are tributary to another nation. They write for themselves, and not for us. It is well known, that Mr. Edward Livingston, in preparing a *penal code* for the State of Louisiana, which will endear his name to all enlightened and benevolent men in every country, among other important suggestions, recommends that it be taught in all the schools. With us the knowledge of the rights and duties of a citizen, should make a part of the earliest education of the youth. His mind should be imbued with it, from the moment he can understand the part he is to act in a free country. This involves a knowledge of the history of his country, of its institutions, the practice of its courts, and of the great principles of law civil and criminal. There can be no doubt whatever, that the most important of these can be rendered intelligible to common capacities, and that the wide distinctions which now exist among different classes, are absurdly artificial, and have no foundation in the nature of man. To what other cause can we attribute even now, the efficient character of our people admitted on all sides, their capacity for business, public and private, than an understanding, imperfect as it may be, of these general principles? But they should be taught in the schools; nothing, however, can be taught, but that which is known. To what end shall we talk of teaching, when teachers are not to be found?

No school fund could greatly improve our schools, while the instructers are so lamentably deficient. We must turn our attention to the true source of the evil; and while we would avoid the gross indelicacy of speaking unfavorably of the schools of our sister states, it is due to truth, that we should mention the condition of the schools in Connecticut, to show that we want not only more competent school funds, but also a fund of competent knowledge in the instructers. In the institution which we contemplate, young men would be educated in such a way, as to supply the wants of the common schools. It would furnish the best preparatory education,

and not a few would resort to it, to qualify themselves for the profession of schoolmasters, thus becoming, as in time it must be, a regular occupation; an occupation too, for that description of persons, who, from their relative rank and standing in society, would be best fitted to be teachers in the common schools.

But this is not all, in reference to the bearing which the proposed institution must have upon the improvement, and prosperity of common schools. Let us not deceive ourselves; the great improvements in society in every age, have come from men of education; theirs is the first suggestion, and so it will continue to be. In what other way can we arrange, around these common schools, a band of efficient, enlightened patrons and friends, than by filling the State with men of liberal knowledge? It is in vain to hope that any great improvements will be introduced into them, unless that class be numerous, who are capable of appreciating their value, and of raising the standard of knowledge. In all provisions for education, it is necessary to remember that we live in a period in which the human mind is making efforts, of which we find no counterpart in former times; and that what was deemed a good education for the common people thirty years since, has ceased to be so regarded. We will no further enlarge upon this topic, but conclude by observing, that the greatest fund which we can now raise for common schools, and by far the most efficient, will be in the endowment of an institution, which, at little expense to the individual, shall spread useful knowledge over the State, through the great classes of merchants, mechanics, and farmers. The bounty solicited, will be by far the greatest benefaction ever imparted by the State to the poor and middling classes. It will be a law for them. Here we might bring our observations to a close, as we have briefly touched upon every topic which we consider connected with the subject; some of them, however, seem to admit with propriety of further remark.*

It is a matter of astonishment, that in a country, in which business and labor constitute distinction, there should have been no public provision made for the education of any class, but of that which is *professional.*

The state of our grammar schools, common schools, and academies, cannot be considered as a fair exception to the truth of this remark.

The question for the legislature is now reduced within narrow limits, and that is, whether it be expedient, that the colleges should receive, without participation, all the bounty of the State, granted to liberal education? If this be truly the question, it would seem, that public opinion has settled it, and though *we* may choose to pro-

* See note A, at the end of the Report.

crastinate, our successors will be compelled to act with decision. No man could do otherwise than disgrace himself, who should come forward with any system of hostility to the colleges, and the professional classes. In a great and prosperous country, these should and will have an elevated rank.

The colleges have been nursed by the State, and so we trust they will continue to be, according to her ability and the requisite provisions for other objects, and that she will never lose sight of the deep interest which she has in them.

Those who pass through the colleges, must, upon an average, devote not less than four or five years, if the period of preparation be considered, to *dead languages*.

Thus it is, that no youth can receive a liberal education, unless this period, and the most precious of his life, be wasted, for waste it may be considered, except to a few.

We may venture to say, that education among us cannot long exist in a state like this. The system is *foreign*, and not *American*; there is little in it suited to our peculiar institutions, or becoming our rank in the world.

Colleges, which were monkish establishments, are even with us, and at this time of the day, the only places where what may be called education can be acquired.

Our academies and schools cannot be named as fit resorts to furnish a man with that liberal knowledge, which multitudes among our farmers and mechanics are eager to obtain, and which would render them ornaments of society, and better fitted for places of public usefulness.

The commissioners have already mentioned the pursuits, which they suppose will receive attention in this institution, with the intention, however, of briefly recurring to the mention of some of them.

When this subject was first brought before the legislature, many gentlemen supposed, that nothing but a mere *agricultural school*, was proposed. It already appears, however, that the project embraces a much wider range; that this is only a part, still an important part. How important, will be obvious from a moment's attention to the subject. *Agriculture is a science*, few employments are in their nature more intellectual. The common laborer has, however, in former periods, been a mere machine, performing its work in the same manner for ages. If there have been improvements, it is undeniable, that they have proceeded generally from those, who have had science, capital, leisure and taste for the employment. If these have not reaped the profit, for profit with them is not so much the object, the community have.

At this institution will be exhibited specimens of farming; varieties of plants and seeds will be collected; fruits will be cultivated; labor-saving improvements and machines tried; economical modes practised; a knowledge of the different breeds of animals, their habits, diseases, the mode of rearing and fattening, promulgated; books upon these various subjects will be furnished; and, in fine, every thing communicated, which has a tendency to enable a farmer to practise his art with the greatest profit, success, and pleasure. The community will be filled with intelligent agriculturists, who, in their turn, must become the instructers of others. Thus, if there be capital improvements, they will be eagerly sought for, and not have to contend with those deeply rooted prejudices, which keep things stationary for ages. Then will there pervade the community, an ambitious and honorable spirit of inquiry; men will talk, think, and write about things that are of real value, instead of spending their time idly, or what perhaps is as bad, wasting it upon insignificant discussions, which have little other tendency, than to narrow their minds, embitter their hearts, and show their ignorance. The solitary state of the man, who labors on the land, is the greatest hindrance to his improvement; the society itself, of such an establishment, will be the best of all schools. No man in the country will be so elevated, as not to be willing to be its patron and friend. Our institutions should be such, as to blend together for mutual improvement, all classes. There cannot be fellow-feeling between ignorance and refinement: history shows it, the mind of man demonstrates it: they are oil and water, amalgamation is impossible.

Political Economy.

The commissioners mean to propose nothing for this school, that is showy, expensive, and merely ornamental, but rather that which is useful and profitable, becoming the dignity and prosperous condition of an American citizen. If the time that has been devoted in the learned institutions of the world, to metaphysics, logic, and mystery, had been applied to the study of things that certainly do exist, instead of to those that may be, we should now have citizens better instructed in their duties, better morals, and better government. The labors of Smith, Say, and others, have rendered this a science, new to the world, to be sure, but deeply connected with the prosperity of any people.

Though there are in it, disputed principles, (in what science are there not?) still, in none are there to be found more truths, that are clear to common apprehension. It is the prudence and enlightened conduct of the family, extended to society; it teaches a moral

code to nations; shows them that the liberal virtues which prompt to unembarrassed trade and intercourse, are as profitable upon a great scale, as in their narrow domestic relations; that a good bargain may be good for both parties; that to have a rich commerce, we must have rich customers; that nations are profited by the peaceful policy of each other; that all plans to monopolise the trade of a world, are but the poor devices of hucksters, pedlars, and forestallers; that to enrich our own fields, it is not necessary to spread desolation over those of our neighbors; that war is only to be justified by the law of self-preservation; that when it breaks out, it becomes a great whirlpool, drawing into its abyss of ruin, nations ever so remote from the scene; and that though they may cry 'peace, peace,' there is no peace. In this, as in many other things, it will be found, that our free institutions have prepared our minds before hand, to embrace and understand clearly those principles, which, in other countries, philosophers have with so much difficulty labored to establish. It is now fifty years since Adam Smith wrote his 'Wealth of Nations,' (the 'Wealth of Nations,' it is justly called) and to this day multitudes of the enlightened portion of his countrymen understand lttlie of his principles, much less have they been able to bring them to bear upon existing regulations.

The first edition of Mr. Say's treatise upon this subject, was published at Paris, in the year 1803, since which time, it has been introduced into many of the universities of Europe, and into some in this country; and still, in public discussions in our national hall, these rational enlightened friends of mankind, have been, by way of derision, called philosophers, as though true philosophy, and the principles of business, could, by possibility, be at war with each other. Of the truths of this science, no American citizen in any public station whatever, should be ignorant. Who may not be called to public trusts here? It is because the responsibility of government devolves upon the people, that the people should be well instructed.

The commissioners have thus gone through an enumeration of those things that distinctly belong, in their opinion, to these institutions. Nothing is left for them to do, but to make a few remarks upon some collateral topics.

Every country has its peculiar character: nature perhaps creates it: institutions may greatly modify and add to its improvement. For the foundation of the sober, patient, discreet, sagacious character of our people, we may look to our early history, our rigid climate, stubborn hills, and iron bound coasts. The institutions for learning have done the rest. What nature has denied, ingenuity supplies. How else can we account for the fact, that *we* should have taken the lead in manufactures, when other states are richer,

and in many parts possess the same natural advantages of water power. This is strikingly true, even if we look to the neighborhood of their great towns. The manufactures of New-England will constitute much of its riches and power. Yes, *power*, for a State without riches, cannot have power.

While Watt and Boulton were bringing the steam engine to the perfection it had in their time, and which is said to save to England the labors of two millions of men, the latter was asked by his king, "Well sir, what are you now about?" "Manufacturing that which kings like much of; *power*, your majesty," was the answer. The manufacturing ability of Massachusetts just begins to show itself: that interest is in the bud: many intelligent persons are of opinion, that not a *fiftieth*, and some that not a *hundreth* part of our water power is occupied. Already those who are at the head of these establishments, enjoy salaries, that far exceed the professional emoluments of gentlemen of the first reputation.

In the mechanic department, in this school, our young men will furnish themselves with the preparatory education, necessary in these establishments, and in an economical manner. In most countries individual enterprise is powerless, without capital; but here, a well educated person, with industry, commands it. He finds those who are willing to furnish that, which is better employed by him, than by them. The one has a fortune already accumulated, and only desires an investment of his money in the hands of prudence, economy, and industry. It is by this process, that *here*, credit is a new power, the value of which cannot be fully understood in other countries. The diffusion, therefore, through the State, of that knowledge that is best calculated to call out the ingenuity of our youth, in the various departments of mechanical and manufacturing business, is of the greatest importance to a State like Massachusetts. It was said of the father of our country, that after the revolution, when the scene of trial had passed by, and good humor prevailed, he asked in a laughing mood, a native of our State, "What have you, in New-England, gained by this eight years war; you seemed to me to be as well off before; *we* can enjoy *trade; we* have rice, tobacco, and cotton." "Sir," said his companion in arms, "*we* have *heads*, and *hands;* we had heads and hands before, but our *hands* were tied behind our backs."

Massachusetts, in deciding this question, will do well to consider what is now passing in the same way in other countries, and in various parts of this.

In the year 1823, a meeting was called in London, (in that country which had the honor of giving birth to Boulton, to Watt, to Arkwright,) for the purpose of establishing an institution for the instruction of her artisans in mechanic science. At the first meet-

ing, some of the most eminent men in the country attended, such as Dr. Gregory, Dr. Lushington, and others. Mr. Brougham not having it in his power to be at the meeting, sent an apology, with a handsome donation, in favor of the objects proposed. Dr. Birkbeck addressed the meeting, and stated, that an institution similar to that then proposed for London, had been set on foot by him and other gentlemen, at Glasgow, in Scotland, twenty years before. That when the plan of it was maturing, all treated the idea of instructing the common mechanics in the principles of science, as the dream of enthusiasm; that it was predicted that if the mechanics were invited, they would not come; if they did come, that they would not listen; and if they did listen, they could not comprehend. That all this, however, was falsified in the result, and that the institution in Glasgow, was in the most flourishing condition. At the meeting mentioned, in London, the Mechanics' Institute was established, with this as its first principle, *that the mechanics should pay for their instruction.*

The managers now publish a regular magazine, which is full of scientific information. The example of Glasgow and London has given excitement to the country; and similar institutions are established, or proposed, in many other cities. Now it must be observed, that this system of instruction is for the *common mechanics*, the *working men*, the *day laborers;* in the language of Dr. Birkbeck, "the unwashed artificers." Of men like these, Dr. Birkbeck states, that there were then in the society at Glasgow, one thousand. We have mentioned these facts as among the most interesting incidents of the day, and to show the deep conviction which appears everywhere, of the necessity of extending knowledge to a class of men which has heretofore, in other countries, been doomed to every degradation. The question for us now is, shall we suffer Europe to march before us in that career of improvement, which we have claimed as peculiarly our own? There are indications that a better spirit begins to prevail.

In the Geneva College, in the State of New-York, the trustees propose, as appears from a circular, dated March 1st, 1824, to establish, if the consent of the Regents of the University can be obtained, a course of instruction, as follows:

1st. Under the English Professor, the pupil shall be taught, the philosophy of the English language, geography, rhetoric, history, English composition, moral philosophy, logic, metaphysics, evidences of christianity, and shall practise public speaking.

2d. Under the Professor of Mathematics, he shall study geometry, trigonometry, land surveying, theoretical and practical mensuration, generally; navigation, levelling, with reference to canals and aqueducts; hydraulics, as applied to machinery driven by water power,

and steam power; natural philosophy and astronomy, with the use of mathematical instruments; the principles of architectural proportions, and bridge building, drawing of plans, &c.

3d. Under the Professor of Chemistry, shall be studied, chemistry, the principles of dyeing, bleaching, &c. the nature and use of different earths and soils, the fertilising qualities and effects of different substances; mineralogy, and botany: that this course of study shall embrace two years; at the expiration of which, diplomas, usual in colleges, shall be given.

The commissioners are not informed whether this plan has been adopted. In the same State, through the munificence of Mr. Van Rensselaer of Albany, there has been established at Troy, a school with the same general design, as that now proposed. In Derby, in the State of Connecticut, there is one. The Gardiner Lyceum, the honor of the establishment of which belongs to him whose name it bears, is too well known to require particular mention here.

The commissioners have thus presented their views upon the subject. In deciding upon it, we must remember, that the eyes of the world are upon these *free republics;* that whatever we do, is a subject of observation and comment; that millions of beings unknown to us, are concerned in the result. To what degree of refinement the mass of mankind can be carried, is yet to be shown.

By the best cultivation of ourselves, let us manifest to wretched man every where, what he also may become, under the same discipline. God has doubtless set us on high, for an example. It is time that we should understand, that it is *knowledge*, and not *punishment*, that is to improve our moral condition: let men be brought to the conviction at once, that their penal codes, curious devices for punishment, their penitentiaries, stepping mills, and other artful contrivances to inflict suffering, cannot be relied on to deter men from crime. That when gross offences have once been committed, there is little hope of amendment ; that the subject of them, so far as the power of man extends, is a dead loss to society, and seems to be so to nature.

In that sound and right instruction, which prepares the mind to love virtue, which makes man a religious creature, thus connecting him with God, and with good beings throughout the universe, there is every thing to hope, and to press us on to all possible exertion.

The commissioners now close their labors in furtherance of the objects of the foregoing Report, and in conformity with the design of the General Court, in their appointment, by respectfully submitting the draft of two bills.

THEODORE SEDGWICK,
L. M. PARKER,
JAMES SAVAGE.

BOSTON, Jan. 9th, 1826.

[Note A.]

Since the Report was prepared, further inquiry and considerable personal observation of the *common schools*, have induced the commissioners to make additional remarks on that head. They would fail in their duty, should they withhold from the legislature their decided opinion, that the public is not fully aware of the very defective state of the common schools; and their conviction, that the honor of the State, its duty as the guardian of the poor and least informed classes, imperatively demand an immediate attention to them.

They are satisfied that in those schools, there is no improvement corresponding with the state of society in other respects, or with the successful efforts made in education by the well informed and richer classes.

On the contrary, that for the last twenty years, there has been no improvement worthy of mention, when compared with the great advances made by society in general. Leaving out of view any notice of what *might* be taught in those schools, and which is not at present, it may be said with truth, that in the most common branches of elementary knowledge, many of the teachers are wholly unqualified. How can it be otherwise?

Many of these teachers receive no greater compensation than the wages of *common laborers*.

Certainly such a recompense will never induce men to qualify themselves for the occupation of school-keeping, one which requires judgement, discretion, sobriety, and dignity of character, united with great experience. To commit fifty or sixty children to the care of a young man of eighteen or twenty years of age, in the common mode of instruction, and to call this *education*, seems an insult to the good sense of the times.

There are facts enough to show, both in Europe and in this country, that the Lancasterian system has been introduced not only in the common schools, but in those in which the *classics* and the *sciences* are taught, with great success. This is true of the High-School in Edinburgh; and one of the commissioners can bear testimony to the same fact, in regard to the High-School in New-York, under the care of Professor Griscom. The country is deeply indebted to this gentleman for his efforts upon the subject, and particularly for having in an excellent work, lately published in New-York, clearly set forth the merits of that system. To what extent it *may* or *ought to be* introduced, into the country part of the State, in populous villages, and the neighborhoods of extensive manufactories, it is not intended to express an opinion here, but should be a

subject of serious inquiry, and generally how far it may be made applicable, (if at all,) where the residence of children is remote from each other.

One of its chief excellences is its *economy:* for the same money vastly more may be obtained.

In other respects, the system has its advantages and its disadvantages: of the former, the most striking can be made obvious to those only, who have witnessed its operation. The subject in all points of view is worthy of investigation.

In respect to the common schools, Mr. James G. Carter has addressed to William Prescott, Esq. several letters which are in print, in which the importance of the subject is pressed upon the public, in a manner to deserve its most serious attention.

Massachusetts, in what she may now do for the common schools, will have the benefit of the experience of her sister States, together with the lights furnished by the progress of education elsewhere. Nothing upon this subject can be expected to be thoroughly done, till the facts in regard to the present state of the schools are carefully collected, together with every other fact, that may throw light upon it; and this by some person or persons, who shall be responsible for presenting to the legislature a system deserving of its consideration. A crude and undigested one would be unworthy of the times.

The commissioners, as they have before stated, do think, that if the proposed institution should accomplish no other object, it would well repay the bounty of the State, in becoming a *nursery for schoolmasters;* and to effect that object, they would recommend, that a department be organised in the school, for the express purpose of qualifying in the most economical way, such persons as shall resort to it, with the view of obtaining instruction for that occupation.

BOSTON MONITORIAL SCHOOL.

(Continued from p. 80.)

NOTE 1.—Page 32.

The system of *mutual instruction* owes its origin to Lancaster and Bell, two Englishmen, or, as the French say, to Paulet a Frenchman, who is known to have systematically employed his pupils in teaching each other, as long ago as the year 1785. Whether the Englishmen got their hints from him is doubtful; for the attempt died with its author, who would probably never have been mentioned again, had not the wonderful success of the system ren-

dered the honor of its invention an object of national ambition. Dr. Bell informs us that the large number of pupils in his school at Madras, obliged him to employ assistants. These were, at first, adults, well acquainted with the particular branch they were required to teach; but he found it impossible to produce that concert of action, which is indispensable in large schools; and, as an experiment, he dismissed the adults, and employed the older pupils, whose conduct and operations he could completely control. The experiment succeeded to his entire satisfaction. While this was doing in the East Indies, Joseph Lancaster, moved by the gross ignorance of the lower classes in England, proposed a system, in which the saving of expense was the most important consideration. Bell's school, like ours, was composed of children, whose parents were more anxious to procure the *best* than the cheapest system; but Lancaster proposed to educate the poor and destitute; and, as he was himself a poor man, this was to be done at the least possible expense. We cannot enumerate all the modes by which this end was attained, and therefore shall only mention two; viz. the employment of monitors, by whose assistance 400 or 500 children were easily taught by one master, and the use of cards or sheets printed in very large type, instead of books. If a book contained 100 pages, each page was pasted on a board, and hung up against the wall; so that a class of ten children could stand around, and read it. As one card was enough for one class, a single book of 100 pages was sufficient for 1000 pupils; the classes exchanging the cards as fast as they had read them. The same economy was used in every other department of teaching. This is the system which has made such unexampled strides towards becoming universal. The system of Pestalozzi, not less valuable, is more philosophical, and very different. Embracing the popular theory of ideas, Pestalozzi wished to illustrate every thing to the senses; and charmed with the philosophy of Bacon,—who reasoned only from facts, and carried illustration by the side of theory, he wished every child to begin with the elements of knowledge, and advance no faster than he understood the facts and propositions presented to his mind. This system, requiring unusual information, labor, and perseverance in the teacher, it may well be supposed could not rapidly spread. But, in the hands of its founder, it obtained the admiration of the learned and philosophical, who flocked to Switzerland in thousands to witness its operations. We look forward with confidence to the time when a better acquaintance with the science of teaching, and a more accurate knowledge of the nature and operations of the youthful mind, will show that this system is fitted for general use; and that Pestalozzi, far from being a visionary enthusiast, was only born a century too soon. We believe that

ours was the first attempt to unite,—however imperfectly,—the systems of Lancaster and Pestalozzi. The former we adopted in the full persuasion,—a persuasion founded on the experiments made in Europe,—that it was a more industrious, orderly, and pleasing, as well as a cheaper mode; and the latter, because the prevailing modes not only appeared to us very superficial, but to have begun at the wrong end. The recent establishment of the New-York High-School, on a plan not unlike ours, encourages us to hope that we have not mistaken the right course. We cannot better conclude this note than with a recommendation to our patrons of a little volume on the subject of Monitorial Instruction, lately published by Dr. Griscom, the enlightened Principal of the school just mentioned. Besides an ingenious address from this gentleman, at the opening of the New-York High-School, it contains more valuable information in regard to the history of the monitorial system, its success throughout the world, and the opinions of the learned of Europe in regard to it, than can be found in any other book with which we are acquainted. Indeed, it is in consequence of our having seen this book, that our report is chiefly confined to the *details* of our mode of instruction.

NOTE 2.—Page 32.

Besides the various manuscript lessons used in the school, the following books have been published by the instructer.

1. *A Catechism of English Grammar.* The object of this little work is to simplify the grammar of our language, and produce such a practical application of the leading principles as will not only impress them upon the memory, but explain them to the mind. Two years' use of the book has proved, that, although susceptible of greater simplicity, and better arrangement, it is sufficient to render the study pleasing to children. No child in the school has ever been known to use a dictionary, to ascertain the part of speech under which a word ought to be classed.

2. *An Analytical Spelling Book.* This was calculated to lead the child to a correct orthography, by a progress easy and gradual, —an arrangement which presents no intricacy, and a classification, which reduces the irregularities of English orthography, to an inconsiderable number. This classification is very minute. In common spelling books the words are so mixed that the irregularities seem ten times more numerous than they really are. On a training field, when twenty companies, each in diffent uniform, are scattered and in confusion, it is difficult to form a correct idea of the number of dresses or men; but when all the companies are ranged in line, one glance of the eye is sufficient to ascertain the number of companies, and a slight examination will enable any

child to distinguish the uniforms, and count the soldiers. This book has been adopted in the Primary Schools of Boston.

3. *The First Part of Practical Geography.* This most important part of geography is merely *Topographical.* Although a small book, and calculated for small children, it contains all the matter of the largest school geographies that children can recollect. The book contains directions for its use, and its complete success has authorised the publication of a *second* part, which is in preparation.

4. *A Treatise on Linear Drawing.* The introduction of drawing as a branch of study in the afternoon school, and the great utility of some acquaintance with this subject, in the delineation of maps, induced the instructer to translate a small treatise which had been well received in France. After using it sometime in manuscript, it was at last printed. This book is calculated for general use, and should be in the hands of every child, and it is hoped that ere long it will be introduced into our public schools, where, although nearly all the boys are to become mechanics, no provision has yet been made for their instruction in drawing,—a branch of study almost as necessary to them as reading and writing; if they are ever to become respectable in any mechanical employment.

The above books, although intended for schools of mutual instruction, are not in the least degree unfitted for use in schools on any other plan. They may be obtained at Cummings, Hilliard & Co's. bookstore in Boston.

NOTE 3.—Page 40.

Amongst the apparatus already purchased, are the following important articles, all of which are of the first quality.

A powerful electrical machine, insulated stool, &c.

A powerful battery, with 30 or 40 instruments for the various electrical experiments.

A galvanic battery, of the newest construction, containing 50 sets of plates, 15 inches square.

Various instruments for galvanic and electro-magnetic experiments.

A large double barrelled airpump, with brass hemispheres, and various other apparatus for pneumatic experiments.

Various optical models of telescopes, microscopes, human eyes, &c. the rays of light being represented by colored silks, &c.

A compound microscope of the most modern and powerful construction.

A solar microscope and apparatus.

A camera obscura—15 inch concave mirror.

Phantasmagoria, of the latest construction, with glass sliders, containing a complete set of astronomical diagrams, and many fancy subjects.

Optical, mechanical, hydrostatic, and mathematical paradoxes, and various other amusing instruments.

Various glass hydrostatic apparatus.

Glass pumps of various constructions.

Hydrostatic bellows. Syphons of various sizes, with jets:

Pullies, wheels, levers, screws, and other mechanical instruments.

Vertical and horizontal orreries, diagrams, celestial charts, and other astronomical apparatus.

Globes, and a very extensive collection of maps, magnets, and articles for magnetic amusements.

A library of several hundred volumes, is already collected; and an appropriation made for its gradual increase.

In chemistry several valuable articles are prepared; although no instruction has yet been given in this branch.

While on the subject of apparatus, it may be useful to mention that contributions of minerals, shells, engravings, or any article which can in any way illustrate the studies pursued in the school, will be gratefully received. There is hardly a family in which such articles may not be found, doing little or no good. We think we have done our duty by informing the possessors where they may be really serviceable. In our plan of instruction is embraced every thing which comes under the head of useful knowledge; and, of course, few donations can be foreign to our purpose.

Of the 75 scholars present, on the 15th of January 1826, the ages are as follows.

2	from	4	to 5	10	from	11	to 12
3	···	5	to 6	9	···	12	to 13
4	···	6	to 7	3	···	14	to 15
6	···	7	to 8	1	···	15	to 16
10	···	8	to 9	5	···	16	to 17
12	···	9	to 10	1	···	17	to 18
9	···	10	to 11				

Constitution and Rules of the Monitorial School.

A PROSPECTUS of this school was published in the spring of 1823, in which the object of its founders was stated, in as definite a manner as circumstances would permit. This paper was circulated among the friends of improvement; and a meeting of gentlemen, interested in the subject, was held at the Exchange Coffee-House,

on the 16th May of the same year. The meeting was opened by an able address from George Ticknor, Esq., explanatory of the object in view, and the general advantages of the system of mutual instruction. The society was then organised, and the following gentlemen were elected;—viz.

JAMES SAVAGE, President.
JONATHAN PHILLIPS, Vice-President,
LEWIS TAPPAN Treasurer,
JOHN S. FOSTER, Secretary.

The same gentlemen still continue in office; except Mr. Tappan, who, in retiring, gave place, as treasurer, to Francis J. Oliver, Esq.

The society was incorporated in June 1824. Its stock is divided into 100 shares of $ 20;—most of which are sold.

The school was opened with eight scholars, under the care of Mr. Wm. B. Fowle, Oct. 14, 1823.

The *terms* of *tuition*, to proprietors or stockholders, are

For children under 7 years of age,	$ 6	Per quarter.
.... over 7 and under 9	8	
.... ... 9 11	10	
.... ... 11	12	

To non-proprietors an addition of one quarter is made; and the terms to them are,

For children under 7	$ 7,50	Per quarter.
from 7 to 9	10,	
from 9 to 11	12,50	
over 11	15,	

The trustees have erected a convenient building, 80 feet by 30 feet, in Washington Court. The centre of the building forms a school-room: the east end, a dressing-room: the west end, two rooms for library and apparatus.

In fixing the rate of tuition, the trustees not only intended to cover the necessary expenses, but to provide a fund for the purchase of such furniture, apparatus, &c. as might be needed. The fund raised by the sale of shares, has been expended in the erection of the building and appurtenances. The surplus income of the school has been expended in furnishing 100 very neat and convenient desks, of which each scholar has one entirely under her control, and the purchase of books, apparatus, &c. of some of which a list has already been given. As the building, furniture, and apparatus, belong to the proprietors, it must be evident that the terms of tuition are extremely low; a large part of the money paid for tuition being merely an investment in stock under their own control. The building is in a retired but central situation; and the comforts

and conveniences of the school-room are not equalled by those of any room that has fallen under our observation.

A fund is appropriated for the purchase of books and stationary for the use of the scholars. These articles are in the hands of suitable monitors, who deliver them to such children as need them, and charge the wholesale price for them. At the end of each quarter these monitors make a return to the treasurer of the amount delivered each child, which amount is included in the quarter bills. It is perfectly optional, however, with the parents to purchase of the trustees, or furnish their children in any other way. Two monitors have the care of the library, and deliver books to the pupils, once a week. No additional charge is made for the use of the library, apparatus, and fuel, or for instruction in the afternoon school, which was not in operation when the terms were fixed.

REVIEWS.

Elements of History, ancient and modern, with Historical Charts. By J. E. Worcester. Boston, 1826. pp. 324.

An Historical Atlas, containing 1. *A Chart of General History.*—2. *of Ancient Chronology.*—3. *Modern Chronology.*—4. *European Sovereigns.*—5. *Chronological, Genealogical, and Historical Chart of England.*—6. *of France.*—7. *American History.*—8. *Biography.*—9. *Mythology. By J. E. Worcester.* Boston, 1826.

Mr. Worcester, whose excellent works in the department of geography, have done so much for the improvement of that branch of education, has here rendered a still more valuable service to young students of history. Many of our readers have no doubt felt dissatisfied, either as parents or as teachers, with the common routine of historical education. One or two defective methods of instruction is prevalent. The pupil is either expected to 'recite' with perfect verbal fidelity, indeed, but with little regard to the train of thought or the course of the narrative, long paragraphs of words, about the meaning of which he is seldom troubled. As for the collateral branches of biography, mythology, and chronology, the impression seems to be that the study of history acquires a desirable simplicity, when relieved of such encumbrances! Another plan is to break up the continuity of historical narration, by reducing a lesson to fractional parts, and employing for this purpose the convenient form of question and answer,—by means of which, half the toil and trouble of the method just mentioned, is devolved on the

teacher, who faithfully recites the question printed for him, and receives the recitation of an equally faithful and unmeaning answer, in return.

Most parents who put themselves to the trouble of trying the value of these methods of what is falsely called instruction, and ask their children at home, a plain fire-side question on the substance of a lesson, find how little is actually understood, and how little is really gained, in either of the ways we have described.

After several years trial of various methods, the following seems to the writer of this article, to be the most successful way of making history an intelligible, practical, and interesting branch of education. In the first stages of instruction, abandon entirely the use of books, and resort to the simple and pleasing method of oral information. The teacher's first duty, on this plan, is to make himself familiar with all the details of the history of the city, town, or village in which he teaches, and to take particular notice of every spot or object which is linked with an historical association,—with the occurrence of any remarkable event. The second step in this practical method of teaching, is, to carry the young learners to as many as possible of these places or objects, and to fasten on the youthful mind a correct and abiding impression of them, as connected with the event which gives them their celebrity or their interest. Here are several great points gained:—the health of the pupils is benefited by the fresh open air, and the invigorating exercise of walking;—the corporeal effort and enjoyment produce an active and excited and happy state of mind;—every thing wears the aspect of reality, of nature, and of life;—curiosity is excited to the highest pitch, and receives its amplest gratification;—from the living voice of the teacher, the ear drinks in instruction with delight, in the very scene of the strange or romantic or glorious action which has left its indelible impress on the spot;—the teacher, too, loses the character of the taskmaster, and becomes the living and venerated oracle of his young circle of listeners,—he becomes one of their sources of pleasure, and is loved accordingly. These results are brilliant;—but they are not imaginary: they are those which took place in the early lessons received in childhood by the individual who writes this article, and which he has had the happiness of seeing realised in the young listeners to his own words.

Here, a person who is unacquainted with this method of instruction, may start an objection. But what if there is no high, romantic, and kindling interest in the scene where you teach? The simple answer is; it is not necessary that there should be. The interesting details of humble adventure, the narrative of domestic life, the tale of the early settlers,—all of which have a poetic charm for the young,—will suit the same purpose, will enkindle

curiosity, secure attention, and convert the study of history, from a task or a book-dream, into a pleasing reality.—Another objection may be that, with young pupils, this method of instruction is necessarily circumscribed:—they cannot walk or travel so far as to embrace a very wide circle of classical or historic ground. Granted: still, every village has the little story of its early settlement, and its spots or objects noted for something which took place in days gone by; and should there be but one such spot or object, it will serve, if we begin with it, to give the study of history the aspect of reality. For every event read in a wider circle of historicai narrative, will by association be made to bear a resemblance to this. The young pupil will be made to realise that such things *were*.

After such a beginning, the teacher transfers, as far as he can, the same method to the study of the history of the county or state in which his pupils reside, and afterwards to that of their native country. Geography, or rather topography, being substituted for a personal visit to the scene of the narrative; and the instructer not furnishing his pupils with books, but still retaining them a listening circle to the words which fall from his lips. The teacher may now cross the ocean; and with the additional and fascinating aid of chronology, biography, mythology, and antiquities, carry (mentally) his little groupe along with him, and instruct and delight them with the romantic history of the old world.

One word on the advantages of this method of instruction, before we return to the works under review.

Early instruction should minister to youthful happiness. The most unpleasant scene in human life is that of a teacher, inflicting corporeal and mental pain on a young being who is innocent of crime; and who, but for unintelligible and unmanageable lessons, or rather, as they are happily denominated, *tasks*, and their horrid consequences—might be happy in the gay morning of his life, enjoying the warmth and the brilliancy of his own delighted feelings. The method of teaching which has been suggested, does not bring over the mind of childhood a single cloud or shadow:—it renders, in fact, more brilliant the sunshine of glad emotion, which is the birthright of the young.

Another advantage of a happy union of the practical and the pleasing in instruction, is, the light in which it places the teacher. To this circumstance we have already adverted; and we leave it to speak for itself, in the situation in which it is there mentioned.

Perhaps the most important results of such instruction, are the discipline it silently gives the mind; the attachment it creates to the business of mental application; the force which it imparts to the power of attention,—the strength which it infuses into the memory, —the delightful and profitable occupation which it furnishes for the

imagination,—that most active of all the faculties of the infantine or juvenile mind; the preference which it produces for reality and fact, over fiction and fancy; the practical spirit which it breathes into the habits of the susceptible mind of youth; the useful information which it conveys respecting that department of history in which the learner is most concerned,—the history of his native scenes; the thorough preparation which it constitutes for a wider range of historical reading; as well as the deep-rooted attachment which it creates for the scenes of early life.

We may mention here another mistake in the common method of teaching this branch of education,—that of beginning with general instead of particular history, and of commencing at the creation of the world, instead of tracing the subject backward from the present hour.

To some of our readers, the attempt to trace the course of events upward in history, may appear strange or whimsical. But, to obviate such an impression, we have only to ask how history is taught at the fireside, in the oral communications of the parent. Even if he could trace his pedigree from Noah downward, he does not choose to begin family history so far back. He relates to his listening and delighted children his own life and adventures, —then something of their grandfather's. One of the young groupe now ventures, perhaps, a question reaching into the dim antiquity of his great grandfather's times: the natural progress of the mind, in this case, is up, not down the stream. All doubt, however, about the propriety of adopting such a method with young learners, will, we think, be removed by a single attentive perusal of the historical department of Blair's Mother's Catechism. Our philosophical readers we would remind of this fact simply, that such a method of studying history keeps true to the acknowledged propriety of proceeding from the known to the unknown. That the popular arrangement of histories for the young is completely the reverse, we need not say.

We have strayed far, we must confess, from Mr. Worcester's publications. But our grand object in this journal is usefulness; and if we sometimes sacrifice a minor propriety to our leading purpose, our readers will, we trust, bear with us.

The history and the atlas before us, will, we have no doubt, form the commencement of a new era in this department of education; if they are rightly used. After what we have written in this article, it will hardly be necessary to say to our readers, that what seems to us the proper place of these excellent works, is the close of historical education in schools and academies.

Used at this stage of education, they will be invaluable helps to the understanding and the memory. But if injudiciously thrust by

the teacher into the earliest course of study, they will be found injurious; as all general histories must necessarily be, in such a situation. We mean that they will enable the learner to discourse of the outlines of ancient and modern history, while they do not give him even a glimpse of the events which constitute the oral or the written record of the actions of his fathers. For this result, however, it would be unfair to blame the author who has furnished works so excellently adapted to usefulness in their sphere.

To speak more particularly of the merits of Mr. Worcester's labors:—his Elements are a highly valuable work, calculated to do away the loose and vague manner of teaching and learning, which has hitherto prevailed, and to supply the means of communicating and acquiring definite, connected, and practical ideas on this branch of knowledge. A general history like this, being suited to aid the pupil in a review of his acquisitions, rather than to introduce him to the subject, affords less room for the method of teaching which we have suggested. Still, the uniting of the atlas with the elements, tends to render the study of history much more practical and interesting than it has hitherto been; and a judicious application of geography, to aid the pupil's progress in the history, will be found to secure many of the benefits of the system we have recommended. Mr. Worcester's Elements are carefully adapted to the young. Tytler, though, on the whole, a comprehensive and instructive author, is, in some places, too brief and cursory; in others, too philosophically profound for the youthful reader. Mr. Worcester is more just in the apportioning of his pages. He gives due space to every thing important; while he judiciously dwells but a short time on the fabulous and the obscure, and indulges but little in philosophic speculation. There is thus a symmetry and completeness in his work, which make it acceptable to the teacher. The style, too, is more simple than that of most manuals of this kind; and this is a point of no trifling value to the pupil.

Had the Elements appeared without the atlas, we should have thought the work too brief for the subject. The author's intention however, is, that the two books should be used in conjunction; and as he has given express directions for the teacher to adopt this plan in instruction, we regard the Elements as filling up the outlines in the atlas, and as inseparable from it, and both works as designed for the purpose of review, rather than of initiatory instruction.

In the general character of the work, there are many traces of laborious research, and careful comparison. Candor and impartiality are equally conspicuous.

But we have left ourselves little room to speak of that part of the work which is comparatively original, and is entitled to the

warmest commendation,—we mean the historical atlas. The use of charts in the study of history, has hitherto, been rare. Of the benefit likely to attend it, however, there can be but one opinion in the minds of those whose memories can reach back to the time when geography was taught without maps.

The atlas we consider not merely as a thing valuable in itself, from its bringing under a glance of the eye the whole surface of history, but from its interwearing the study of this branch of education with that of chronology, biography, and mythology.

All who are now on the stage of adult life, must, we think, be quite prepared to admit that, with all the skill of their teachers, and all the accuracy of their books in this department of instruction, they feel the want of some expedients by which their knowledge of the subject might have been associated more intimately with the connection of its parts, and with its collateral branches of learning; so as to have occupied a larger and better defined space in the mind, and to have been more ready at the call of recollection. These advantages Mr. Worcester has put fully in the power of the rising members of the community.

For the benefit of readers at a distance, into whose hands these works may not yet have fallen, we transcribe a part of the description and illustration of the chart of history.

'1. This Chart affords means of facilitating the study of history, similar to what are afforded by maps in the study of Geography. It supposes time to be flowing, in a stream, from the left hand to the right; and represents, at one view, the principal states and empires which have existed in the world, together with their origin, revolutions, decline, and fall.

'2. Those who may make use of this Chart, are supposed to be conversant with the common principles of geography, and to understand the relative situation and importance of the different countries which are represented. It will be readily seen, that the spaces which represent the several countries on the Chart, do not give any idea of the *extent* of those countries, but of the revolutions which they have undergone, and in some degree, of their comparative importance in history. Those parts of the world which are almost unknown in history, (as for example, all *Africa* except Egypt and the Barbary states,) are not represented at all on the Chart.

'3. In the arrangement of the countries, the geographical order is generally followed. It unavoidably happens, that owing to conquests and other acquisitions, the several parts of an empire or state, cannot always be placed in a contiguous position. To remedy this inconvenience, recourse has been had to coloring the different parts of the same empire with the same color, by means of which, the eye can embrace, at one view, the various territories, of which it was, at any given period, composed. The colors fit for this purpose are so few, that

a repetition of some of them has been necessary; but they are such as will not be likely to mislead the student.

'4. The whole scale comprises a period of two thousand seven hundred years; namely, from the year B. C. 800, to the end of the 19th century. This interval is divided into twenty-seven equal parts, by *perpendicular lines*, extending from the top to the bottom, each space between the lines denoting the period of 100 years. The several countries, whose history is delineated, are represented in spaces formed by the *horizontal lines*. By carrying the eye horizontally along the Chart, the principal revolutions which a state has undergone, will be seen.

'5. To ascertain the date of any event in the history of a country represented on the Chart, add the figures at the line denoting the event or revolution to the next century, if *after* Christ, on the *left* hand; and if *before* Christ, on the *right* hand; and the sum will give the date before or after the Christian era, as the case may be. Thus it appears by the Chart, that the *Babylonian empire* ended, and the *Persian* began, B. C. 536; that *Macedonia* was reduced to subjection to the Romans B. C. 168, and *Greece* B C. 146: also that the kingdom of the *Lombards* was incorporated with that of the *Franks* A. D. 774; that the kingdom of *England*, under the Saxons, commenced in 827; that *Ireland* was added to it in 1172; *Scotland*, in 1603; that the *English* held possessions in *France* from the year 1066 to 1558. The *slant lines* denote, generally, the gradual conquest of a country; as for example the conquest of *Britain* by the *Romans*, was commenced A. D. 43, but not completed till 84.

'6. By inspecting the Chart, and carrying the eye vertically, from the top to the bottom, one may see what states and empires were flourishing at any given era.'

The atlas, we are happy to understand, is to be had separately from the Elements; so that pupils who have made use of any other history, may finish this branch of their education, with the aid of the charts.

The American Speaker, or Exercises in Rhetoric; being a Selection of Speeches, Dialogues, and Poetry, from the best American and English sources, suitable for Recitation. Boston, 1826. 12mo. pp. 444.

A natural and impressive manner of speaking is, in every stage of society, a personal advantage which is highly valued. The means of acquiring it are partially furnished in every country; and in

none can these facilities be more desirable than in one like ours, where every active and useful citizen is expected to take a part, in the conduct of public affairs, and consequently to speak sometimes of the common interests, in presence of his fellow-citizens.

In the United States as well as in England, the practice of declamation at school and college, has been deemed the best preparation for the discharge of this branch of public business. The exercise of declaiming, accordingly forms a part of the prescribed course of early education, in all good schools; and usually a set time is appropriated for this purpose, to every class and every pupil.

The portion of time thus assigned is reduced, however, to a mere fraction, when it comes to be distributed among the scholars of a numerous school, or the students of a college. Two very unpropitious results are inseparable from this unfortunate state of things. The pupil, if he is conscious of inferiority in this species of exercise, comforts himself with the certainty of a long and happy exemption from this unpleasant part of his duties; if he is conscious, on the other hand, of excelling, he performs this exercise remissly, because it devolves on him so seldom, that there is not an adequate and steady excitement kept up in his feelings towards it. As for the teacher, he has commonly so many pupils to 'hear' within a limited time, that he has it not in his power to bestow on every individual, that attention which is required.—Add to all this the want of good books of instruction, and even of the necessary selections of suitable pieces; and it is idle to ask why so little is accomplished in this branch of education—why the young man who is entering on professional life, appears commonly to such disadvantage in all the externals of oratory; or why men who are endowed with the noblest gifts of heaven, are fain to blush or blunder through a public address, as a dreaded and disagreeable task, or to deliver themselves in a style which bears no manner of relation to the thoughts and feelings which they utter.

A great mind, it is true, will force its way through every difficulty; and even the very unwieldiness of its movements and its expression, may be associated in the imagination of an audience, with the idea of gigantic proportions, or ungovernable force. This circumstance, however, can never be pleaded as an apology, but by the favored few who are conscious of such powers.

In most cases, certainly, an impressive and efficient delivery is an accomplishment purchased at the usual expense of time and industry; and the true policy of judicious superintendents of youth, is, to provide their charge, as early as possible, with the best means of making this desirable acquisition. That the common

provisions of instruction in this department are not adequate to the importance of the object, is universally acknowledged.

No one in our day will be found hardy enough to advocate the painful and laborious preparation of ancient rhetorical discipline. Still, it is admitted there is something—there is much that may be done, even in these times, by proper training in early life.

One preparatory measure which seems indispensable to improvement in this branch of education, is, not to force the superintendence of it on persons who are possessed of perhaps no qualification for the office. A man may be an unrivalled linguist, a profound mathematician, an expert and successful teacher in every other branch, but absolutely incompetent in this. He may be entirely deficient in that force of imagination, that warmth of feeling, that versatility of mind, that control of his voice, and that management of his person, without which, all his other talents and acquirements are nothing to the purpose.

It is, we think, a pleasing indication of the improvement in public opinion and taste on this subject, that such impressions begin to be felt; and that, in our large cities, at least, the patronage bestowed on this branch of education, apart from others, is sufficient to induce individuals to devote themselves to the business of teaching it. Another indication of improvement is the readiness of parents to provide their children with the assistance of the best books in this department.

Of these, Mr. Fowle's, is certainly one which will have a very favorable influence in its sphere.

The natural aversion of the young to frequent repetition, in any thing, makes it peculiarly necessary that, in matters of taste and feeling, they should not be wearied and disgusted in their exercises by the incessant reiteration of the same subject. Besides, the teacher, no less than the pupil, requires occasional relief by novelty. Without this aid both become dull and remiss,—no ordinary misfortune in a thing which depends much on the state of the animal spirits.

The American Speaker, therefore, is a book which we are glad to see: it adds much that is new and interesting to the previous stock; and, although all the compositions from which the extracts are made, are by no means of a classical order, they all possess that vivacity of character which is a great point in producing animated delivery,—the very soul of good speaking.

Mr. Fowle has not prefixed to his selection any of the common rules of elocution. This we think an omission. Many of the rules and directions usually laid down in the introduction to such books, are, it is true, infinitely worse than none. This circumstance, however, cannot justify the neglect of all rules.

The difficulty of obtaining access to any good work on this subject, is perhaps a better and a sufficient apology for the want of preliminary instruction. The only book which contains any thing worth transcribing on this subject, is Austin's Chironomia*—a work by the tutor of some of the best orators of Ireland. The expensive illustrations of this publication, might be presented in a cheaper form; and its few undisputed principles and excellent rules, might easily be extracted and transferred to the pages of an elementary work. An arrangement such as this, would, we think, add much to the value of a second edition of the Speakor.

A New Method of teaching the art of Book-keeping. By J. Irvine Hitchcock. Philadelphia, 1823.

Mr. Hitchcock's method is ingenious, and, in some particulars, quite novel. It is a bold deviation from the dull routine established by the old systems. Book-keeping used to be treated as a dark and mysterious subject, to the knowledge of which the learner must worry his way through a world of puzzling and perplexity. The new method is plain and intelligible: the subject is simplified as far as possible: no intricacy remains, but that which is inseparable from the complicated nature of some mercantile transactions. A boy of fourteen may now take up this branch of education, with a rational hope of making as much progress in it, as in any other.

Mr. H's work is, we think, highly creditable to him, both as an accountant and a teacher. We ought to say more. It speaks favorably for our country, in this branch of instruction. The most popular English treatise on this subject is perhaps Morison's, a work of deserved reputation for its practical character. Compared with Hitchcock's, however, it will be found inferior in simplicity of plan, and in the quantity of useful exercise.

As a school-book, Mr. H's publication seems to us to possess a decided superiority over the various works on book-keeping, which, in several years' practice in teaching, we have had occasion to use; and we would warmly recommend it to other instructers.

Mr. H's plan being chiefly original, and the form of his work making it impossible to introduce extracts, it may not be amiss to mention some of the peculiar advantages of his system.—It furnishes the learn-

* There are but few copies of this work accessible in this country. One is to be found, however, in the miscellaneous department of the Atheneum in Boston.

er with a set of entries or a day-book in a printed form, and so saves the labor of copying what it is unnecessary to copy. Those parts of the subject are withheld from the pupil, which it is his business to find out for himself, by the application of the rules which he has learned. Every such part, however, is furnished in a separate book, called a key, which is designed for the use of the teacher, and saves him the toil of examining minutely the work of every pupil—a task which, in a large school, can seldom be thoroughly performed. The study of the whole subject is carefully graduated; the learner being conducted by regular advances from the simpler and easier parts to the more complex and difficult. Accounts are presented, first, as kept by a person trading for himself only; secondly, as kept by a commission merchant; and, thirdly, as in special partnership. It is not its least recommendation that this work is published in a form adapted to the size of most school desks; and the quality of the blank books, as well as the neat style in which they are finished, is much to the credit of the publishers.

In executing his plan the author seems constantly to have aimed at perspicuity of style, and plainness of expression in definitions. He has taken great pains to adapt his whole system to the minds of the young. His work is, as every school-book ought to be, copious in explanation and in practical exercises. It enables the pupil to go as far as possible in instructing himself, it incites him to activity, and gratifies him with the consciousness of improving to a great extent by independent effort.

In the existing practice of some mercantile houses, the pupil might find some things at variance with the new method. But, as the great merit of the system on which he is taught, is, that it makes the subject perfectly familiar to him, he will find no difficulty in adapting its minor details to particular circumstances.

The Elements of Geography and History, combined in a Catechetical form, for the use of families and schools. By Frederick Butler, A. M. Accompanied with an Atlas. Wethersfield, 1825. 12mo. pp. 360.

It is gratifying to observe, in modern school-books on geography, that authors and teachers are abandoning the useless and inconsistent method of conducting a child to the centre of the system, for his first lesson in a science which professes to be a description

of the earth. We wish this rational spirit of improvement were permitted to find its way into the study of geography as now pursued, and abolish the unmeaning practice of commencing with the form and composition of 'the terraqueous globe,' instead of with that portion of the earth's surface, which falls under the young learner's daily notice.

Mr. Butler's work does not begin, as we wish it did, with the United States; but it places them so near the beginning of the book, and devotes so large a space to them, that, even in this point of view, we cannot but regard his book as an important step taken towards a desirable improvement in geographical instruction.

The catechetical arrangement is adopted in this work, with a view to render the subject more easy and familiar. The design is laudable, but we doubt whether, in such cases, it is always attended with the desired result. Catechetical instruction renders the pupil's task more light; as it reduces the memory lessons to portions which he can manage. All this may be done, however, and the lesson, which is said, be still as unintelligible as ever; so that, in reality, the subject itself stands invested with all its original difficulty. We confess that we should like to see the method of alternate printed question and answer abandoned, and recourse more generally had to the simple form of consecutive paragraphs, to be enlivened by the oral explanations and questions of the teacher. That is the most efficient kind of instruction, in which the manual furnished by the author is used merely as a book of outlines to be filled up by the teacher's own mind. The writer of a school book should not go before the instructer, and, by a limited number of questions, preclude a wide range of thought, on the part of the pupil.

In other respects, Mr. Butler's Elements contain much that will be gratifying to every teacher who adopts a practical method of instruction. Some of the advantages likely to result from the use of this work, are peculiar. Geography is here combined with history: the former science is thus applied to one of its principal uses, and is rendered more pleasing than it could otherwise be to the young; while the latter is practically and thoroughly taught; and in so interesting a way, too, as to produce a desire for a more extensive knowledge of it.

Another excellent feature in the plan of this geography, is, that half of the book is allotted to America; and much the greater part of that space is occupied with the United States.

The atlas which accompanies this volume, is neatly executed; but it might be better adapted to the work it is designed to illustrate, if care were taken to insert in the maps more of the places which are mentioned in the geography.

The Practical Reader, in five Books. By M. R. Bartlett. Second Edition, corrected from the first, and enlarged. Utica, 1825. 12mo. pp. 336.

This work must have cost its author much labor. The first part contains the substance of Walker's Elocution, minutely detailed in the form of question and answer. The second part exhibits an attempt to apply the rules of vocal inflection, by means of printed accents.

The toils of the compiler have, we are sorry to observe, been but little alleviated by the diligence of the printer; for the typography of the book is shamefully careless. This negligence is to be the more regretted, as there is, perhaps, no work in the English language, in which the utmost accuracy of execution is more imperiously demanded, than in a book of accented reading lessons.

This work, though, on the part of the compiler, a minute and careful one, is not, we think, in all respects judicious or happy.

In the first place, the rules of elocution which it lays down, are too numerous. This objection is often made,—and with good reason,—to Walker's treatises. His works on elocution are very diffuse; and his rules are unnecessarily multiplied, and are apt to produce much perplexity, especially in extemporaneous reading. We quote the following just sentiments from the advertisement to the fifth edition of the Elocutionist,* a work by Mr. Knowles, one of the most successful living teachers of this branch of education, in Great Britain.

'In the introduction which follows, an attempt is made to simplify Mr. Walker's system of the inflections,—with what degree of success I leave it to the critic to judge; but, even if I have failed, I shall still content myself with the reflection, that the undertaking will most probably have the effect of causing that system to be more narrowly inquired into, and of eventually producing—what every teacher with whom I have conversed upon the subject, has acknowledged to be a thing "devoutly to be wished"—a reduction

* The Elocutionist, a collection of pieces in prose and verse, peculiarly adapted to display the Art of Reading, in the most comprehensive sense of the term. Including, among other original matter, a Debate composed expressly for the purpose of exercising the young student in purely argumentative Declamation; and preceded by an Introduction, in which an attempt is made to simplify Mr. Walker's system, and, by referring his illustrations to more general principles, to reduce the number of his rules. By James Sheridan Knowles, teacher of Elocution, Glasgow, author of the tragedy of Virginius, &c. Fifth edition. Glasgow and London, 1825. 12mo. pp. 328.

in the number, and a more lucid economy in the arrangement, of the rules.'

Mr. Bartlett might have rendered the study of elocution in this country an important service, by pruning the system of Walker, so as to reduce it to a manageable compass. The attempt has been successfully made in the department of inflections* by the Rev. Dr. Porter, of Andover.

The subject of emphasis needs a similar simplification; and various improvements might be effected in other departments.

We are sorry to observe in the application of accents denoting inflections, many mistakes for which we are afraid the printer is not to blame. We allude particularly to instances in which the rising inflection is uniformly marked at the end of several of the first clauses, in a sentence, and, particularly, where emphasis requires the falling inflection.

It is but justice, however, to this work, to observe that teachers who feel bound to adhere undeviatingly to Walker, will find the Reader present Walker's system in a more intelligible and practical form than it possesses in the works of the original author, and that consequently Mr. Bartlett's volume is better adapted to school use.

It would afford us much pleasure to see a third edition of the Reader, containing Walker's rules simplified and abridged. We hope, however, that it will appear on better paper, and be issued from a more accurate press. We may suggest, at the same time, what we think would be a valuable improvement in this and every other book on elocution,—we mean double the common space between the lines; so as to leave sufficient room for an easy and unembarrassed glance of the eye along every line with its accents and pauses. Such an aid is very serviceable to the teacher himself, when reading to his pupils; but it is peculiarly valuable to the youngest class of learners.

* Analysis of Vocal Inflections as used in Reading and Speaking: designed to render the principles of Walker's Elements more intelligible. Andover, 1824. 8vo. pp. 20.

INTELLIGENCE.

BOSTON SCIENTIFIC LIBRARY.

It is a common observation on the libraries of this city and its vicinity, especially the public ones, that they are of too miscellaneous a character. Books are admitted on all subjects, and unless the library be very large, it contains but few on any one. If intended for general use, such books are sought for as are interesting to the greatest number of persons; and a book, however valuable or important, is not procured if it would be particularly interesting to only a few individuals. As this is the case with the greater part of books on scientific subjects, very few, comparatively, are to be found in our public libraries —Indeed the want of a *collection* of scientific books has been long and very generally felt, and is peculiarly pressing at the present time, when the boundaries of knowledge are so widely extended, and rapid advances are continually making in almost every department of science. There is no accessible library which contains the translations of even the *greater part* of foreign learned Societies—those rich storehouses of the labors of men, who, during the last two centuries, have brought to unequalled perfection branches of science which had long occupied the minds of men, and have explored new regions in the kingdoms of nature and art. Nor is the deficiency less striking in the later publications. Many scientific journals and magazines, of the highest value and respectability, are not to be found in any public library, and, if taken at all, are taken only by individuals, and for individual benefit or gratification. Works are continually appearing on improvements in the arts and manufactures, as well as in science, which it would seem to be of the greatest importance for us to have, of which we see notices in the reviews and literary journals, but which every one must long for in vain, who cannot afford to import them.

There has never been so loud and earnest a call as is now heard, for exact and practical knowledge, for scientific principles, and the results of experiment, to guide in the new works of every kind, which the engineer and mechanic are erecting on all sides of us. Every one feels how poor are our means of answering this call. It has not hitherto been answered by the public. There is no tolerably complete collection, open to all, on any one science that can be named. He who wants books on any science, on any art or branch of art, is obliged to send to Europe to procure them for himself, at great expense, delay and uncertainty, hardly knowing what to send for, or what to expect, and oftentimes without the means of ascertaining the extent of his own wants.—There is no place to which the artist, or mechanic, or man of science, can resort, where he can ask with any probability or hope of a satisfactory answer, what is doing, or what has been done, on the subject which his curiosity or interest leads him to investigate.

There is no deficiency of talent for these subjects. Indeed, if there be any trait which has decidedly developed itself in our intellectual character, it is that of the quick invention and skillful application of practical principles in the arts:—But how do we allow this faculty to waste itself in discoveries that have already been made. The same genius might be employed in advancing the limits of knowledge, which is now spent in tracing paths which, perhaps, have long and frequently been trodden. While books are so much wanted, one of the strongest motives to bold perseverance in original investigations is lost in the fear, that what seems to be new is already familiarly known to others; and whoever has been led to pursue a subject however little beyond the usual course of elementary reading, must soon have felt himself impeded, if not altogether discouraged, by the want of books.

The most obvious means of supplying this want, is the formation of a library, by subscription, to consist exclusively of scientific books.—Such a library, while it admitted books on all branches of science, should contain entire sets of the transactions of learned societies, which are essential to the completeness of every scientific library. It should also be a principal object to confine the selection at first to one or two subjects of preeminent importance, in order that a complete collection on these subjects might, as soon as possible, be formed. At the same time, as many of the periodical journals of science should be constantly taken, as the funds of the institution would allow: such publications being, from their novelty, and from affording the means of tracing, at all times, the progress of discovery, particularly interesting to all.

It should be a *circulating library*.—A person will derive incomparably more benefit from a book, if allowed to take it to his own study, or his own fire-side, than if only permitted to consult it in a public room.

The advantages that would result from such an institution are so numerous, and, to any one who turns his attention to the subject, so obvious, that it is impossible in this place, to advert to all—and seems almost unnecessary to mention any of them. A well chosen library is a fountain of valuable knowledge, and one of the character here contemplated would send forth knowledge of the most useful and practical kind, such as, if acted upon, could not fail to be of public and private benefit, in developing and perfecting the resources of this section of the country. Neither would the direct influence be confined to this immediate vicinity. Individuals in the neighboring towns, even in those at a distance, might avail themselves of its use. To the committees of the legislature on the subjects of internal improvement—on roads, canals, and railways—on education—indeed on almost all subjects which fall under the notice of the representatives of an enlightened people, the value would be inestimable. To the conductors of literary and scientific journals, and to editors of newspapers of all kinds, the advantages would be no less certain, whether they estimate the value of information by its own excellence, or consider the privilege of receiving it from its original source, rather than from other newspapers. To all engaged, in any way, in the composition of scientific books, a rich scientific library is indispensable. Few books of this kind have indeed been written in New-England—and few ever will or can be written, until the sources are collected from which the materials are to be drawn. Such is the present state of books of this kind, that it is not hazarding any thing to say, that not one of the standard works on natural philosophy which are abroad, not even the best articles in the encyclopedias, could have been written here, without subjecting the author to an immense charge for foreign books.

It is often asked why regular courses of lectures on scientific subjects are not established here, as in some of our sister cities; and many persons are, at this moment, earnestly expecting or hoping for some plan for their establishment.—But the truth is that no one, not provided with a valuable library of his own, could deliver a course on many of the subjects of great interest to the public, which should be worthy of their attention. To our future lecturers, then, a scientific library is indispensable There is another class of our fellow citizens, the instructers of the public schools, who would not fail to be greatly benefitted by this institution, and by whom its advantages would be diffused throughout every part of the community. They cannot afford to provide themselves with many books; and yet it is they who are silently sowing the seeds of the future science of our country.

It may be objected, and it is perfectly true, that most persons of these classes are not in the habit of reading scientific books; but it is equally true that it is often because they have not access to them—and it would be contrary to all experience, if the circulation of such books should not make many, who now hardly know what is meant by science, to become lovers of it. In fact, in this as in most cases, consumption and supply act reciprocally on each other; and a well chosen library of science, thrown open to the public, would soon create numerous readers.

It is unnecessary to say any thing of the benefits of such a library to artists, mechanics and civil engineers, to manufacturers, merchants and navigators; they are too quicksighted not to perceive the advantages that would be certain to accrue to them from the earliest notice of the newest improvements and inventions. Indeed the best proof has already been given that the public is aware of the necessity of such an institution, and disposed to make the most vigorous exertions to procure it. We have great pleasure in stating that on Friday, the 6th January, at a meeting of gentlemen of various professions, held at the Academy's Room, Athenæum, Professor Ticknor having been called to the chair, on motion of John Lowell, Esq. it was unanimously voted,

1st. That a society be formed, to be called the 'Massachusetts Scientific Library Association.'

2d. That the terms of subscription to said Library shall be as follows, viz.: Every person who shall pay to the Treasurer of this Society not less than the sum of $100, shall be entitled to one share in the Library and the privileges of membership, which share shall be transferable on payment to the Treasurer of $20 for each transfer.—Every person who shall pay as above not less than $50, shall be entitled to a share, with all the privileges aforesaid, during his life. Every person who shall pay annually not less than the sum of $5, shall be entitled to the privileges of membership so long as he shall continue to pay his assessment. Holders of transferable shares and life members shall not be liable to future assessments.

3d. That the funds raised as aforesaid shall be laid out in procuring a Circulating Library, to consist of books on the following subjects, viz:

Mechanics, with their applications to architecture, manufacture and the arts—mathematics, pure and mixed—natural philosophy—commerce, political economy, and statistics—geography—astronomy—agriculture and horticulture—mineralogy, botany and natural history—such voyages and travels as are of a scientific character.

All books on law, medicine, theology, metaphysics, morality, history, and literature generally, are to be excluded.

Books of the kinds last mentioned are to be excluded, both because there is no such want of books on these subjects as of those of a scientific character, and because the value of a library depends very much on its completeness. A library on any one branch of science or art, so complete that it might be consulted without danger of disappointment, would be far more valuable than a much larger collection of books on a great variety of subjects, but not complete on any one. And that this completeness may be the sooner attained, it seems desirable that a selection should be made of such subjects as are of most prominent and general utility, and that an attempt be made to render the collection as perfect as possible on those branches.

To a community made up in a great measure of men of business, actively engaged in works of public and private utility, in the arts and in commerce, those publications promise to be most useful, which relate directly to the application of science to the arts and business of life, and the commercial transactions of nations. In the selection of books, preference will accordingly be given to those on Mechanics, and their various applications, particularly in civil engineering, in the construction of roads and canals, and the application of steam, water and wind to machinery—and to those on commerce, political economy and statistics.

4th. That the following gentlemen be a Committee to solicit subscriptions:

Israel Thorndike, Jr. Amos Lawrence, John A Lowell, George B Emerson, John C. Gray, John Lowell, Jr., Wm. Sturgis, Daniel Treadwell, Dr. E. Hale, Edw. Brooks.

5th. That whenever fifty members, whether shareholders, life members, or annual subscribers, shall have been obtained, the members shall be called together by the Secretary of this meeting, for the purpose of choosing officers and organising the said association.

Edward Brooks, Secretary.

EDUCATION IN OHIO.

Extract from Governor Morrow's Message, December 7th, 1825.

The character of the state, by her enterprise, and the energy of her measures, has been placed on high ground; her public credit is inviolate, and will remain secure, while sustained by an efficient system of finances; her exertion too, in the execution of extensive public works, calculated for the general benefit, attended with the most promising prospects of a favorable result.

It is indeed a subject of regret, that the picture now drawn should be obscured by any dark shades. But it is true, that the state of education and means for mental improvement among us, cannot be viewed with the same satisfaction as that of the other important interests of our country. Measures for improvement in this regard, have been a standing theme of Executive communications, ever since the commencement of our government. Much has been said, and nothing effectually done, until at the last session of the General Assembly. Then, the incipient steps were wisely taken for the introduction of a system of Common Schools. From the institutions then authorised, if duly supported and cherished by the Legislature, the most beneficial effects to society must result. The necessity of such support is obvious; because it is a palpable fact, that science and intellectual improvement have fallen far behind, in their pace, the progress of population, wealth, and general improvements on the face of the country: and equally unquestionable that the cultivation of these is essential to the well being of society. No interest, it is believed, confided to the Legislature, is of more importance than this, whether we regard it in its influence on human happiness, or on the permanency of our republican system.

MUTUAL INSTRUCTION.

General Devereux of the Colombian service, Senator Rouannes an envoy from Hayti, and Mr. Blaquiere the English Greek agent, lately met the committee of the society for elementary instruction, (Paris,) where they presented documents on the state of mutual instruction in Hayti, Colombia and Greece. The committee promised to assist in propagating instruction in those countries, and speedily to assemble a general meeting.

COLLEGE AND SCHOOL LANDS IN INDIANA.

It is stated in Gov. Ray's Message to the Legislature of Indiana, that the Common School Lands in Indiana, consist of 608,207 acres, which at two dollars per acre, would produce a fund of $1,216,444, producing at 6 per cent interest, an income of $72,986. There are also 40,960 acres of college lands granted the State.

PROFESSIONAL AND COMMERCIAL INSTITUTION.

A meeting was held in the city of London, on an early day of last summer, for the purpose of taking into consideration the establishment of a seminary for instruction in commercial and professional science. The plan contemplated is similar to that of the Mechanics' Institute. Lectures, and the system of mutual instruction, are the methods to be adopted for imparting information on the subjects which are to constitute the course of studies.

The leading object of the proposed institution, is to furnish young men who intend entering on mecantile business, or who are already engaged in it, a circle of useful knowledge, calculated to produce those enlarged and liberal views of commercial enterprise, which shall be most conducive to the interest of the merchant, and to the prosperity of the country.

When we reflect on the large and respectable portion of British society, which the above institution will benefit, we contemplate with the sincerest satisfaction the first steps taken toward an object of so vast importance.—*Our* merchants, we hope, will not be slow to follow the good example set them in this instance. Indeed, we think that the Boston scientific library, (See intelligence in our present number,) will prove the origin of an institution similar to that in London.

UNIVERSITY OF LONDON.

The managers of the new London University have purchased a plot of ground, of seven acres and a half, in the neighborhood of Gower Street, on which the new college is to be erected.—*Glasgow Herald.*

STATE OF EDUCATION IN THE HIGHLANDS OF SCOTLAND.

The general assembly, in 1824, appointed a committee to inquire, and to report to their next meeting, as to the existing means of education and religious instruction throughout Scotland, particularly in the Highlands and Islands. This committee accordingly transmitted to each of the ministers of the 907 parishes in the church, a list of queries, in order to ascertain the facts of the case. They received in the course of the year 800 returns, and laid before the assembly, which met in May last, a summary of the information which these returns contained.

On considering this report of the committee, the assembly came unanimously to the following decision.—"The assembly highly approve of the exertions of the committee in acquiring the knowlege of facts necessary for the prosecution of this most interesting and important object, and rejoice that the result of these exertions has been the attainment of such varied and valuable information. In regard that there does not appear to be a risk of any obstacles occurring to impede, or at least to prevent, the ultimate adoption of the proposed scheme, and that it is of the utmost importance to commence immediately to raise the funds necessary for carrying it into execution, they recommend a collection to be made throughout all the churches and chapels of the establishment, on or before the first sabbath of February. They instruct the committee, which is hereby reappointed, to open a subscription for the general purposes of the scheme, and to take every proper and prudent measure in their power, towards forwarding the object in view; and when the funds, thus raised, are ascertained, in whole or in part, the committee is farther authorised, if it shall be judged advisable, to nominate a schoolmaster or catechist, in the stations that appear most urgently to require them, after due communication held with the heritors and others concerned."

The following abridged view of the leading facts which produced this decision, will be sufficient at once to demonstrate a deplorable want of schools and catechists in many parts of the Highlands and Islands, and to secure the sympathy and liberality of the benevolent, for the remedy of this great evil.

The whole population of Scotland amounts to 2,093,856, and the church is divided into 16 synods.

Schools in Synods.

In the ten synods of Lothian and Tweeddale, Merse and Tiviotdale, Dumfries, Galloway, Glasgow and Ayr, Perth and Stirling, Fife, Angus and Mearns, Aberdeen, and Moray, there are 764 parishes, and 1,716,126 persons; and so abundant is the number of schools in these districts, that, with a few exceptions, they may be said to be well supplied with the means of education, and that there is scarcely an individual who has not been taught to read.

The remaining six synods, however, namely, Argyll, Glenelg, Ross, Sutherland and Caithness, Orkney, and Zetland, situated chiefly in the Highlands and Islands,

and containing only 143 parishes, and a population of 377,730 persons, are, as stated in the parochial returns, in the most urgent need of not less than 250 additional schools.

The number of scholars that would attend each of these 250 schools, it is computed, at a low average, would amount to 42. It follows, therefore, that in these synods there are 10,500 children left without the means of any education; and the committee are quite satisfied that the number is, in fact, much greater than the calculated number of 10,500.

These 10,500 children alluded to, are all, it is to be noticed, under 15 years of age. If persons of all ages are included, the number of those not taught to read almost exceeds belief. But how could it be otherwise, when more parishes than one are described as not having a sufficient number of schools to accommodate one tenth of their population? Several are said to be in need of three and four, and one of even six schools, and as to another, the appalling fact is mentioned, that it consists of 1000 square miles, and has a population of 4747 souls, and that of these only 995 have learned to read at all.

Catechists in Synods.

In the first ten synods abovementioned, there are only six catechists stated to be necessary for the due means of religious instruction to the people; and this necessity arises from the large territorial extent of some particular parishes.

In the other six synods abovementioned, no fewer than 130 catechists are required! Nor will this lamentable deficiency seem surprising when the physical localities of the country are considered. There are many islands in it at great distances from the coast. The coast of the mainland is often indented by long arms of the sea, and its whole surface is intersected, and in many places rendered impassable, by precipitous mountains, and by rapid rivers.

One parish, 17 miles long, on the mainland, has an island belonging to it with a population of 300, situate at 24 miles from the shore, and owing to its great distance, and a dangerous navigation intervening, the minister cannot visit it above once in the year. Another parish consists of nine islands, of which six are inhabited; and it extends, including sea, 50 miles in length and 30 in breadth; and a third parish of 24 miles long, on the mainland, includes four inhabited islands, some of which are 20 miles distant from each other.

Each of these parishes has only the parochial minister to perform every pastoral spiritual duty to the people.

The inducements that we have to attempt the remedy of the evils in question, are great and inviting.

In reference to the means of education by the establishment of schools, every encouragement is held forth which can arise from the characteristic acuteness of the population concerned; from their habits, connected with their peculiar custom of frequenting village meetings, for hearing and committing to memory the history and poetry of their clans and country; and, above all, from the extraordinary and growing eagerness they have of late manifested for the blessing of education.

Many children, it is stated in the returns of the clergy, are prevented from attending a school by their distance from it, and by poverty, disqualifying parents for paying the school fees, or purchasing school books; but few or none are prevented by indifference. On the contrary, the best clothes of the parents have, in some instances, been sold to defray the expense of educating their children. Adults too, from twenty to seventy years of age, crowd everywhere to newly erected schools, which happen, from their situation, to be at all accessible to them; and from their ardor and assiduity in their tasks, such persons do often make a rapidity of progress unheard of in other districts; from six to twelve months (of which numerous instances are specified) being sufficient to qualify them to read the scriptures with facility. Nor is it uncommon for a boy to be sent by the joint subscription of the poor inhabitants of the hamlets of a glen, to be boarded and educated at a distance, and for this boy, on his return, to become

the schoolmaster of his neighborhood, after the labors of the day, with himself and those who are to be his scholars, are over. And to all this may be added the interesting fact, that when either a youth or an adult acquires the qualification of reading, it is the frequent practice of his less fortunate neighbors (grandfathers and grandmothers, parents and children, mixing in the same group) to listen to—what otherwise they could not have heard but from their ministers, whose visits are necessarily "few and far between,"—the glad tidings of salvation read to them from the book of God.

2. In reference to increasing the means of religious instruction by employing additional catechists, the committee have to state, that there are also powerful inducements to attempt this measure.

The inhabitants of the Highlands and Islands have a profound respect for religious institutions, and an ardent thirst for religious knowledge. Amidst difficulties totally unknown in the Lowlands, and next to insuperable in themselves, they repair in crowds to the accessible places of worship on the ordinary sabbaths; and it is common for them, on occasion of the sacrament of the Lord's supper being dispensed in their own or in an adjoining parish church, to go from great distances, sometimes by sea and sometimes by land, in large groups, and carrying with them all the necessary means of lodging and subsistence during the period of their stay. On the Monday after the sacrament, in one particular parish, there may be seen the beautiful and touching spectacle of from 40 to 50 boats setting sail at once, to bear homewards the pious multitudes, who from the remotest boundaries of its vast extent (50 miles by 38) have been devoutly in attendance on the service of the communion.

While, however, the committee state the sad privations as to the means of education, and of religious instruction, existing in these sequestered districts, and the inducements, from the dispositions and habits of the people, that encourage attempts to alleviate the evils to which they are exposed, they feel it their duty to state also, that the committee on the royal bounty, the Society for Propagating Christian Knowledge, and various private institutions, have rendered most important service in this good cause. But still the funds of these respectable bodies, though managed with the utmost judgement and economy, and their labors, though most faithful and zealous, are utterly inadequate to meet the exigencies of the case. An immense field of beneficence yet remains to be cultivated by the general assembly, and, through them, by the christian public.–*Glas. Herald.*

GLASGOW MECHANICS' INSTITUTION.

On the 9th August last, Mr. John Deuchar, M. W. S., formerly President of the Royal Physical Society, &c. &c., was unanimously elected Lecturer on chemistry and mechanics in the Glasgow Mechanics' Institution.—*Glas. Herald.*

WESLEYAN ACADEMY, WILBRAHAM, MASS.

While this institution provides for the prosperity of the church, by retaining in the field of labor her most useful ministers, it affords means for their children to obtain a religious and literary education, on principles adapted to useful life. The following is the system of education, recommended by the Board of Trustees:—

1. There shall be taught reading, writing, grammar, arithmetic, geography, composition, book-keeping, mathematics, logic, natural and moral philosophy, and astronomy. The languages usually taught in academical institutions. Females will be taught the most important branches of domestic economy, plain and ornamental needle-work, painting, drawing, &c.

2. There shall be an instructer to direct the studies of pious young men, who, from a sense of duty, are expecting to enter into the gospel ministry.

3. All the scholars, except those who are town residents, are to board in the institution, and the superintendent is to have the care of them as members of his own family, when not engaged in their studies.

4. The instructers shall take suitable times, when out of school hours, to exercise the scholars in the practical application of those branches of mathematical science which they have studied in school, such as measuring solids and superfices, guaging and weighing—taking heights and distances, &c. They shall also take opportunities for exercising those who have studied composition, rhetoric, and logic, in declamation and forensic disputation. The teachers shall also give lectures on chemistry, with practical experiments and illustrations, and illustrate the principles of natural and moral philosophy in general.

5. It is proposed, in connection with the Institution, to cultivate an extensive garden and farm. under the superintendence of an experienced and scientific agriculturalist, in which those scholars who wish to acquire a theoretical and practical knowledge of agriculture may be taught; and others who may desire to do something towards their own maintenance, may have the privilege of laboring when out of school, and they shall be allowed a suitable compensation for their labors.

6. Work-shops are also to be provided, and furnished with suitable tools, where the scholars, under the direction of an experienced mechanic, shall be taught the use of tools in various kinds of mechanical labor.

The Legislature of Massachusetts has granted an act of incorporation to the *Wesleyan Academy;* and the New-England Conference have resolved to patronise the Institution, and to use their influence to raise subscriptions to aid its funds. —*Zion's Herald.*

COLLEGE AT GENEVA, NEW YORK.

The Rev. Alonzo Potter, Professor of Mathematics and Natural Philosophy in Union College Schenectady, has been elected President of the Episcopal College lately organised at Geneva in the State of New York.

PROCEEDINGS OF CONGRESS ON EDUCATION.

Common Schools.

On motion of Mr. Strong of N. Y. the Committee on Public Lands was instructed to inquire into the expediency of appropriating a portion of the net annual proceeds of the sales and entries of the public lands, exclusively for the support of *common schools*—and of apportioning the same among the several States in proportion to the representation of each in the House of Representatives.

Education of the Children of Seamen.

On motion of Mr. Holcombe, of N J. the Committee on Naval Affairs was instructed to inquire into the expediency of establishing a school or schools for the education of children in destitute circumstances, (the sons of American seamen to be preferred,) to be articled to serve when required, on board of the public ships of the United States, until twenty-one years of age; the object of the institution being to furnish the Navy, from year to year, with a number of competent and well educated petty officers.

United States Naval School.

Mr. Storrs, from the Naval Committee, reported a bill for the establishment of a *Naval School.*

This bill authorises the President to establish a school for the improvement and instruction of the Midshipmen, and other officers of the Navy. That the said school may be located on any land now held by the United States, for Naval or Military purposes, and shall be subject to regulations to be prescribed by the President—that it shall be under the command of a captain of the navy, to be selected by the President—that one Professor of Natural and Experimental Phi-

losophy and Astronomy—one Professor of Mathematics and Navigation—one teacher of Geography and History—one Teacher of the French and Spanish Languages, and one Fencing Master, shall be appointed by the President.—And the Secretary of the Navy is authorised to provide the necessary books, implements, and apparatus for the School.

MERCANTILE LIBRARIES IN THE UNITED STATES.

Philadelphia Mercantile Library.

A Mercantile Library Company has been formed five years in Philadelphia, and has met with encouraging success. The number of volumes is 1500, the annual subscription two dollars, and it is patronised by the most respectable Merchants.

New-York Mercantile Library.

In five years, the young men who compose the New-York Mercantile Library Association, by the most commendable perseverance and exertions, have collected a library of *twenty-two hundred volumes* of well selected books.

Boston Mercantile Library.

At a meeting of Merchants and their Clerks, held at the Commercial Coffee House in the spring of 1820, was first projected the establishment of a Library and Reading Room, for the benefit of young men engaged in Mercantile pursuits. The plan met with general approbation. An association having been formed, with suitable rules and regulations for its government, by the munificence of individuals and the active zeal of the young men, it was speedily carried into operation, and a room centrally situated (over Merchants' Hall) fitted up for the purpose at considerable expense. The subscription list increased rapidly, and the object of the association was successful beyond the expectations of its most sanguine friends.

At the formation of the Library many of the most respectable and influential merchants of Boston, entered zealously into the cause, made liberal donations in money, and furnished many valuable books. The young men having so laudable an example before them, generally came forward and connected themselves with the association.

The Library room is open every evening, (Sundays excepted,) from the 1st September to the 1st of May, and three evenings in a week during the remainder of the year. Books may be taken from the room and returned in exchange for others as often as the proprietors may wish, or they remain there and peruse them, where perfect silence and decorum at all times prevail. There are now arranged on the shelves nearly eleven hundred volumes, including many interesting and useful works; but there exists an almost universal desire for the occasional new publications; and here the directors would observe, that the reduced state of their funds has prevented them from making any addition for some time past, and to this they attribute in a great degree the withdrawing of many of the old subscribers, and the difficulty experienced in procuring new ones.

PRIZES AWARDED TO WORKS ON EDUCATION.

At the late annual sitting of the French Academy, the prizes for publications conducive to morals and virtue, were awarded to the Baron de Gerando, for a work on 'Moral Improvement, or Self Education,' and to the work of the late Madame Campan, "on Education."—*Ch. Obs. Nov.* 1825.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN BALTIMORE.

A bill has passed the Maryland House of Delegates, granting power to the Mayor and city Council of Baltimore, to establish public schools within that city, and to lay taxes for the support of such schools.

NOTICES.

WORKS IN THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.

Catalogue of the Officers and Cadets, together with the prospectus and internal Regulations of the American Literary, Scientific, and Military Academy, at Middletown, Connecticut. Middletown, 1826. 12mo. pp. 42.

That Capt. Partridge's Academy meets with a large share of public approbation and patronage, is apparent from the fact that the present number of students is two hundred and eighty nine—of professors and other instructers, eighteen

The principal of this flourishing seminary is distinguished not only as an instructer thoroughly versed in military science, but as an enlightened and successful advocate of practical education.

An agricultural seminary, we confess, is more to our taste than a military one. Capt. Partridge's system, however, presents so many excellent features, that we shall not restrict ourselves to this brief notice, but, at our earliest opportunity, shall take up the subject at greater length.

Monitorial Schools. The Origin, Progress, and Advantages of the Monitorial System of Tuition, set forth in an Address delivered on the occasion of the opening of the Elizabeth-Town Public School, December 14th, 1825. By John C. Rudd, D. D., Rector of St. John's Church. Elizabeth-Town, 1826. 12mo. pp. 18.

The rapid increase of the number of monitorial schools, is a pleasing fact in the progress of education. The impression seems to be everywhere gaining ground, that these schools afford a more direct and efficient method of instruction than is furnished in others.

The monitorial system possesses, indeed, many advantages over the common method. It devolves upon the pupil's own exertions a larger share of his own advancement; and produces therefore greater force and activity of mind. The whole routine of school occupation is so much enlivened by this system, that the school hours become the most pleasant of the day. But our present limits forbid our entering farther into these topics. We can barely afford room to mention the decided superiority of the monitorial plan, in the admirable school of preparation which it forms for such pupils as are in after life to become teachers.

In the first part of his address, Dr. Rudd takes great pains to show that a due share of the honor of originating the system of mutual instruction, is not accorded to Dr Bell. The second part of the address presents a brief and cursory view of the intellectual, moral, and physical advantages of monitorial instruction. The limits to which the author has confined himself, render his pamphlet less interesting than the fuller treatises on the same subject, to which we have already called the attention of our readers. But the true test of the merits of this tract, is its success in accomplishing its local purposes, which we have no doubt it has fully done.

Young Ladies' Astromony. A concise System of physical, practical and descriptive Astronomy: designed particularly for the assis-

tance of Young Ladies, in that interesting and sublime study; though well adapted to the use of Common Schools. By M. R. Bartlett. Utica, 1825. 4to. pp. 195.

This is a simple, familiar, and practical work, excellently adapted to its purpose. A popular treatise on astronomy, constructed so as to dispense with the more difficult mathematical illustrations, has, we think, been much wanted for the use of females, as well as for that of youth of the other sex, who enter early on business, and who cannot bring to the study of this subject a mind disciplined by mathematical instruction. Mr. Bartlett's work will, we hope, be extensively adopted in academies and schools.

In a second edition, the author will, it is to be hoped, abandon the catechetical arrangement, and thus leave more scope for the mind of the young learner to exercise itself in furnishing appropriate answers to the questions.

Epitome Historiæ Græcæ cum Appendice de Diis et Heroibus poeticis. Accedit Dictionarium Latino-Anglicum. Editio Prima Americana, Novi Portus. 18mo. Epitome, pp. 100: Appendix, 148: Dictionary, 110. 1822.

We take notice of this meritorious little work, not merely from its intrinsic character, but its connection with the advances of improvement in teaching. This is one of that useful class of publications for which we stand indebted to the French classical schools, and which has, within a few years, been furnished to fill up the enormous gap previously existing between Cordery and——Virgil!

After several years' use of this interesting book, in the instruction of different classes, we can cheerfully recommend it to such teachers as may not yet have adopted it. There are but few boys so dull or so regardless as to be able to resist the fascination of this little history.

A Standard Spelling-book, or the Scholar's Guide to an accurate Pronunciation of the English Language; accompanied with easy, familiar, and progressive Reading Lessons. Designed as an Introduction to the use of Walker's Critical Pronouncing Dictionary of the English Language. Compiled for the Use of Schools. By James H. Sears. Revised Edition. New-Haven, 1825.

In many schools in which Walker's dictionary is used by scholars of the middle class, it has unaccountably been customary to make use, in the youngest class, of a spelling-book entirely at war with Walker's principles. This oversight is the cause of much trouble, and much waste of time, in building up, and pulling down, and rebuilding,—where the first effort might erect a perfect fabric at once.—The spelling-book before us, is intended to accomplish this object. Of its success we have no doubt. The utmost care has been bestowed on its arrangement. In several other particulars which our limits will not permit us to mention, it possesses equal merit.—The internal character of the book corresponds, in all respects, to the neatness and care of its execution.

A Catechism of English Grammar, with Practical Exercises, prepared for the use of the School of Mutual Instruction in Boston. By the Instructer. Boston, 1823. 12mo. pp. 68.

Murray's Grammar is universally esteemed a very systematic work. There is not, however, the same unanimity about the merits of his system when considered with reference to the genius of the English language.—We have no room here for discussion. We can only avow our opinion as coinciding with that of those writers who assert that, in Mr. Murray's exposition of English grammar,

there is too much accommodation to the idioms and the etymology of the Latin language. We are happy, therefore, to invite the attention of our readers to such books as this of Mr. Fowle:—not that we consider this little work perfect in all respects, but as a valuable improvement which gives excellent pledge of the future character of this and other current abridgements of grammar.

BOOKS FOR CHILDREN.

The Prize, or the Story of George Benson and William Sandford. Newburyport, 1824. 18mo. pp. 36.

This is an uncommonly simple and natural little story. It is exceedingly interesting; and the moral lessons which it inculcates, cannot but make a deep impression. George is perhaps rather too good a boy for ordinary life. The account of the reformation of William, however, is very pleasing, and forms a happy close to the story.

In some books for children, an attempt is made to deter from vice, by exhibiting the dismal end of evil doers. But the coloring of such representations, is sometimes so strong, that the narrative becomes too gloomy for the tender and susceptible feelings of the infant mind.

The plan which is adopted at the close of this story, is, we think, a more successful, as well as a more pleasant one: the scene is shifted from the depressing consciousness of guilt, to the happy feelings of a reformed heart. The impression left on the mind of the young reader, after the perusal of such a tale, is the still small voice, which was not heard till the horrors of the tempest had passed away.

The sermon at the end of the book, contains, we doubt, too many expressions unintelligible to young children. The questions, however, which are judiciously annexed, will enable a child to understand the substance and scope of the discourse.

It is we think a recommendation to this book that the story is American. Many of the details of children's books published in England, are necessarily unintelligible to young readers in this country, owing to the difference in the circumstances of life and manners, as well as of political institutions.—In books for children, there should not be a single unintelligible expression.

Harry and Lucy concluded; being the last part of Early Lessons. By Maria Edgeworth. 3 vols. 18mo. Boston, 1825.

These volumes are intended by their ingenious author to entice young people to the study of the mechanic contrivances and scientific apparatus, which are commonly classed under the head of useful inventions. The chief aim of the work, however, is to present all these subjects in that light which is best suited to produce careful comparison, to elicit judgement and reflection, and to suggest such combinations of thought as may aid the inventive efforts of the imaginative faculty. Our present limits will not permit us to do more than mention that this is one of the best of those publications which are turning the current of public opinion on early education, and which are leading judicious parents and instructers to allow the stream of knowledge to flow into the juvenile mind, through the appointed medium of the senses.

To praise any of Miss Edgeworth's attempts would be idle. The American public has long since assigned her one of the highest places among the friends of parents and of youth. The following account of her present work is extracted from the 'preface addressed to parents.'

'These volumes are intended for young people, from the age of ten to fourteen. They complete the series of "Early Lessons;" an humble work, from which no literary fame can be acquired, but which I have been most desirous to com-

plete, from the belief that it will be more useful than any other in my power. I have had another motive for finishing it; one, which, though it may be no concern of the public, I may be permitted to name. Harry and Lucy was begun by my father, above fifty years ago, for the use of his own family, and published at a time when no one of any literary character, excepting Dr. Watts and Mrs. Barbauld, had ever condescended to write for children. That little book was, I believe, the very first attempt to give any correct elementary knowledge or taste for science in a narrative suited to the comprehension of children, and calculated to amuse and interest, as well as to instruct. Finding, from experience, that it answered the intended purpose, my father continued the book at intervals; and in the last part, published in 1813, I had the pleasure of assisting him. He then communicated many ideas for the completion of his plan, which I thought too valuable to be abandoned.

'I have endeavored to pursue, in this Conclusion of Early Lessons, my father's object in their commencement—to exercise the powers of attention, observation, reasoning, and invention, rather than to teach any one science, or to make any advance beyond first principles. The essential point is to excite a thirst for knowledge, without which it is in vain to pour the full tide even to the lips.'

Miss Edgeworth is a decided friend to *mutual instruction*, as will appear from the following passage.

'Much that would be tiresome and insufferable to young people, if offered by preceptors in a didactic tone, will be eagerly accepted when suggested in conversation, especially in conversations between themselves: Children can go on talking to one another much longer than they can bear to hear the address, however wise or eloquent, of any grown person. Young people, of good disposition, learn with peculiar ease from each other, because the young teacher has not forgotten his own difficulties: knowing exactly where they lay, he sees how to remove them, or assist another over the obstacles. The great preceptor, standing on the top of the ladder of learning, can hardly stretch his hand down to the poor urchin at the bottom, looking up to him in despair; but an intermediate companion, who is only a few steps above, can assist him with a helping hand, can show him where to put his foot safely; and now urging, now encouraging, can draw him up to any height within his own attainment.

'The system of mutual instruction can be still more advantageously pursued in teaching the rudiments of science than those of literature, and may be extended even to higher branches of intellectual education. Upon this principle, in the following volumes, the young brother is employed to teach his sister what he has learned, either from his father, or from books.'

At a time like the present, when conversation so often turns on inventions and improvements, these volumes must we think, form a very acceptable present to the young. Parents and children are under equal obligations to the publishers of this useful work.

Nursery Morals, chiefly in monosyllables: original and selected. By a Lady. Baltimore. 1823. 18mo. pp. 177.

This is one of the few books of its kind, of which we can speak with unmingled approbation. It is perfectly intelligible, it is highly pleasing, and it conveys, in a kind and cheerful tone, many a valuable lesson. It would make, notwithstanding its title, one of the best books of lessons for primary schools.

We have not the happiness of knowing who the lady is who has conferred such a favor on the community. But we earnestly hope that she will continue her efforts in a department in which they are so successful, and in which they are so much needed.

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ACCOUNT OF THE SYSTEM OF INFANT SCHOOLS.

(Continued from p. 134.)

Method of Teaching in Infant Schools.

In the first place, the instruction of infants should never be conducted in a manner calculated to excite weariness and disgust. The lessons should not be suffered to weary by their length, nor should they be delivered in a tone of voice approaching cold authority or the accents of anger. It is desirable, in general, to appropriate to each lesson the period of one quarter of an hour, and to shorten the lesson so far as to make it very possible to bring it to a termination in ten minutes. The remaining five may be passed either in rest or in some pleasurable action.

The subject should be delivered in the most simple and childlike language. They who are engaged in the instruction of the young will very quickly discover, that the reason of the failure of their purpose, to call into action the powers of their charge, is in the majority of instances to be found in ourselves, and not in our disciples. Our language is the language of manhood, or the question which we have put has not been capable of a simple answer. If, for instance, according to the plan proposed in this system, it is the intention of the master to instruct his little assembly in the nature of a particular metal, its origin, and the mode of its preparation for use; he will, in all probability, place a halfpenny, or any other coin before them. He will commence his lesson by asking some simple question. At first he may perhaps say, "Describe this." He finds the language to be above the comprehension of infants. He next asks them "What is this?" Now to this question many answers may with greater or less propriety be given; and the fault of

the errors which may be committed will not be in the mind of the children, but in the incorrect language of the teacher. They may answer, "It is a halfpenny." "It is metal." "It is copper." "It is round." "It is brown." He will perhaps meet their apprehension if he should on the other hand say "Tell me, my dear children, what this is made of." If he fail thus to convey his idea, he will proceed to inquire what other things around them, and in which they are already informed,—the room, the house, their clothes,—are made of, and thence lead their minds to the subject before them. They will, in consequence, very quickly catch his intention.

At the commencement of the instruction of infants, one thing alone, if possible, should at the same moment be presented to the mind.

Instruction should not be communicated to them in the form of tasks. If it be intended only to exercise any particular mental energy, the time will regulate the lesson. If it be intended for the retention of the memory, then frequent reiteration is the mode of learning; and that which is not effectually attained at one period will be completed by future repetition.

If it be possible, *more of the senses than one* should be brought to bear upon the subject which is offered to the mind. Let the eye or the hand assist the ear in the reception of the communicated thought. I have seen the following lesson on honesty given to an assembled school. There were placed on a board, in an elevated situation, where all could be seen with distinctness, a sovereign,* an apple, and a pin. The conversation, which follows, then took place.

M. My dear children, what is this? C. A pin, sir.—M. And this? C. An apple, sir.—M. And this? C. A sovereign, sir.—M. Which should you like best to have? C. The apple!—The sovereign!—M. Whose are they? C. They are yours, sir.—M. Are they yours? C. No, sir.—M. Which may you take when I don't see you? C. None, sir.—M. Why must you not take either? C. Because it is as wicked to take a little thing as to take a big thing: and God sees us always.

In the next place, in the communication of a lesson to his scholars, the teacher should unite with it some one or more of those means of awakening and fixing their attention, which we have already shown to be in his power.

He may deliver the lesson himself in the language of affection and kindness. Or he may place one of the children as monitor in an elevated rostrum. When this child has called the attention of the

* A gold coin, value 20s.

others, by clapping his hands, or by saying aloud in cadence repeatedly one, two, three, four, in either of which they will all immediately join, they will cheerfully say after him the lesson which he may be directed to teach them.

To the words of the lesson, as we have already remarked, some rhythmical action may be adjoined.

The lesson may be uttered in various cheerful tones, in which the whole will by sympathy unite.

It may be formed into metre, or so put together as to adapt itself to some common tune.

Or it may be said by the whole school arranged in order, to the beat of the foot as they walk round the room, or the play-ground.

In order, however, to meet those subjects which could not with propriety be thus communicated, and for the general purposes of the establishment, the whole school should be divided into classes, with a monitor to each class, who may, at stated times, arrange his fellow-pupils before him, and teach them that which the superintendent may see him capable of, and may direct.

Beyond this general mode of instruction, it is necessary that a small adjoining room should be prepared, in which the several classes, in their turn, may undergo, from day to day, a course of personal examination. There the progress of any individual may be discovered; and there the more advanced classes may receive a direct preparation for the higher schools, into which, in progress of time, they are to be transferred.

Singing.—It will have appeared in some of the foregoing remarks, and, in other parts of this treatise, that, as far as children of so young an age are capable of the art, singing is introduced into these schools, for the purpose of giving occasionally a new form, and adding a cheerfulness, to the lessons in which they are instructed.

In order to assist the infants in the attainment of this art, it is desirable to teach them to beat the time of the simple airs with which they may be acquainted. This attempt will be generally successful. One of the older boys will soon learn to lead the rest with a tambarine, to every stroke on which they will clap their hands, or make some other measured movement with precision.

Reading.—The teaching of letters and of verbal sounds offers, it is confessed, according to the present mode of the attainment of that art, many difficulties to the superintendent of an infants' school. It must be followed, however, in a manner accordant with the system already laid down.

It is necessary, then, according to this system, in teaching the letters to infants, to set them before them; not originally considered as letters, but confessedly as the signs of certain sounds previously

known and made familiar to the child. The first difficulty which here presents itself to the teacher, arises from the technical names which have been given to the letters themselves. In the common mode of expressing these letters, a child has no sooner learned to give their names with accuracy, than he has to discover, that, on their being placed in combination, the sound in which he has learned them is, to a great degree, unsuitable. Letters ought, when first offered to the eye of an infant, to be so taught as to suggest the most simple and appropriate sounds: so that, in the first acquirement of the earlier steps of the art of reading, spelling and enunciation should be almost co-existent. In the present mode of teaching, letters rarely appear in combination as they are expressed when single. The letter M, for instance, that I may confine my remarks to one, is pronounced as though written *em;* but should we, under any circumstances of combination, regard this letter as indicative of a sound similar to this? I offer, then, to the consideration of those who are engaged in the instruction of infants, the following proposal. Let not only the name of the letter be taught, but also, as nearly as possible, the organic sound of which it is the sign. The letter M, with the rest, when in use, is practically nothing more than this,—it is the sign of that sound which is made with the lips, in a peculiar manner, compressed; and when any other sound is attendant on it, that sound is derived from the letter next preceding or next following it. Let the reader, pressing his lips together, endeavor to produce one of the sounds peculiar to this position of the organs equivalent to M, without the adjunction of a vowel, and let him proceed next to add any vowel which he may please: he will find, that thus far, the act of spelling is very nearly the same as the act of enunciation, and that he is obliged, by the effort, to express himself with a clear articulation. Letters thus considered are the signs, severally, of those simple sounds which are formed by any position of the various organs of verbal enunciation.

It is manifest, that great difficulty will attend the teacher's endeavors to fix the attention of the little pupils. He must, as much as possible, seek the aid of art and circumstance. One letter alone should be presented to the eye at once. An instrument for this purpose may be used, framed after the manner of that part of common clocks, which shows successively the days of the month. The letters should be large and very distinct. They should be of different colors, painted on grounds of different shades; in order that the lesson may vary from the letters to their colors, and from the colors to the sound which the figure suggests. And it might very materially aid the progress of the children if they could be displayed, after the common mode of some earlier books of instruc-

tion, in connection with some animal, or painted in a color whose name commenced with the letter to be learned.

The instructer may now select the more simple combinations of letters, and some of the easier and more common words. Of these he may make a twofold use. In the first place, one of the older boys may spell them aloud from the rostrum, which the whole school, arranged in classes, may be taught to imitate; and spelling may be thus learned after the manner used in acquiring the first steps in number. They may be also printed in distinct characters on counters. It must not be his wish to confine these counters within a limited number, as the use of them may occasionally form a lesson and an amusement to the whole of his school. For these he may provide a sufficient number of bags or boxes, and having divided them into those combinations which are more simple, and those which are more difficult, the older and more advanced children may teach classes which are less so. For this purpose the class may stand in a line at some little distance from their seat. The monitor may then take from his box one of the counters, and hold it at a sufficient distance before the class. The first child may then approach, and having spelled the word retire again to his place: This may be imitated by all the children in their order. When all have done this separately, they may then all spell the word together, beating time to each letter and to each syllable. By this mode of proceeding several advantages are gained. One word alone is presented at the same moment to the eye. The attention is kept alive by a constant change of place; and the whole is rendered pleasurable by rhythmical movement in the united spelling of the word. The boxes containing the counters should be occasionally changed from one class to another; and if there be a sufficient number of them, all the purposes of spelling may be thus answered.

In reading, it is advisable not to use books in infants' schools, as the little children are not supposed to be sufficiently old to handle them properly; it is difficult too, when each child holds a book, to fix the eyes of all on the word which it is proposed to read. The lessons in large characters may with better effect be fixed on boards. When the lesson is fixed, the little class is assembled round it; and the monitor, with a small piece of stick, points to the word which is to be read, which all the class spell and read together.

In the process of reading, it must also be remarked, the language should always proceed from that which is more simple to that which is more difficult; and the subject, too, should be such as will immediately commend itself to the understanding of a child. It should relate to something which he would most naturally observe in the events around him; some of the earlier duties of life,

or some of those admonitions to which even the weakest efforts of conscience are responsive. The infant should be immediately sensible that what he reads is true; that a possibility is described; that the lesson enforces an effort which is just and proper; that the instruction which he is receiving tends to serenity and peace of mind, and consequent happiness.

I may here further remark, that the mode of instruction thus unfolded may be extended to any measure which circumstances or propriety may suggest. The art of reading, it has been confessed, as every other art of the utility of which they are not able personally to form an estimate, presents some difficulties to the untutored mind of the younger infants. It is an error, however, which is too prevalent in the education of the young, to make this art always introductory to further knowledge. Whatever may be taught by the ear should not be communicated alone by the eye: and wherever the eye may be brought to receive the intended impression by a simple effort, it is unnecessary, in the case of infants, to aid the idea by the intervention of a complicated art. The instruction of infants should, then, be conducted very much by means of narrative or conversation; and the idea should, as much as possible, be assisted by graphic representation, or any other which may secure the aid of more than one of the senses.

If it were necessary, for instance, to teach them the nature of forms, or the relative properties of lines, these might be better effected by the assistance of solids, which they might handle, or by the postures of their own bodies, than by oral descriptions or representations on a flat surface. The progress would thus be from the number of the sides of a solid, or of its lines, to their relative length or form, and thence to their position in the figure. Their names would fall last under notice. A representation on a flat surface alone should in this instance be avoided, because it implies an exercise of mind in comprehending it, many removes beyond any effort to which an infant can have been accustomed. The method of narrative or conversation, with the aid of graphic representation, should be followed in the natural history of those animals with which the little pupils are likely to meet in life; and also of those whose names occur in the sacred volume. And in this department of knowledge, it will not be thought necessary to proceed beyond those points which are more prominent: a description of their form and color; of the country which they inhabit; of the means of their subsistence; of their peculiar habits; and of their various uses to mankind.

It will be manifest that the progress from these, by the same mode of instruction, to a description of some of the more useful arts and trades, will be simple; and as it is more than probable that

the majority of the little assembly will be destined to pass their lives in the employment of one or another of these, they may thus be introduced to an early habit of exercising their mind, and forming their judgement on that which they see around them, and in which they are occupied; and not, as is too frequently the case, be suffered to pass their lives impelled only by necessity, or guided by the inclinations to which the unchastened passions may give birth.

THE SCRIPTURES.—The principal subject of instruction, however, should be the sacred volume; and all the ingenuity of the teacher should be exercised to prepare his little charge, not only for a ready use of that book, and a correct understanding of its various subjects, but also to approach it with those devout feelings which it so highly demands, and which are the best pledge of its real utility to us.

The Scriptures, then, under any form, should not be made a task-book in an infants' school. They should not be placed before a child until he has acquired a moderate facility in the art of reading; and when read, the instructer should proceed in a different form from that of the common subjects of learning. The teacher should himself always superintend every lesson in the sacred Scriptures. He should endeavor to impress his class with the idea, that this book must be read with more serious and governed feelings than others of less importance and less authority. And he should then carefully lead the attention to each part separately, and teach the little pupils to pronounce the words distinctly and slowly as he may point to them. The lesson should never be so long as to induce a feeling which even approaches to weariness; and it should be at all times accompanied with an explanation of the meaning of every more difficult word, and every clause as he proceeds. He will find very considerable assistance in this part also of his duty, in previous narrative and conversation, and in the use of suitable pictures. If thus the subject have been first explained from the mouth of the master, and illustrated by a representation of its principal features, the lesson will be read with the greater interest, and will be far more likely to infix itself on the memory and the heart.

WRITING, and SEWING, or KNITTING, are introduced into these schools, in the higher classes, the one of boys and the other of girls, for the purpose of teaching them to exercise manual ingenuity; for variety in their lessons; and to prepare them for the course of instruction in the parochial schools.

The mode of proceeding in the communication of the art of writing is the following. In the first place, the pupils must be instructed in the forms of written letters, until they are able to read them as fluently as the printed letters, with which they meet in their common lessons. Having thus communicated the idea, we

have laid the best foundation for the art itself. For the attainment of this, let a large board, painted black, be prepared and suspended on some conspicuous part of the wall of the room; and on a suitable desk, so placed as to afford an easy view of the board, let the slates be laid, on which the lesson is to be performed.

Now letters, as works of art, may be divided into the most simple elementary forms. These incipient forms, in an order constantly approaching to the construction of letters, and not the letters themselves, should be to infants the introduction to writing. When they are able to imitate them with sufficient accuracy, that which is afterwards necessary will follow without perplexity and with little effort.

When the teacher has prepared and arranged the incipient forms of the letters, he may then, at the periods allotted to this lesson, place his class before their slates, and having himself set the copy with chalk on the black board, superintend their first efforts. His object should not be rapidity of progress, but exactness of imitation. It will be desirable to have one side of the slate plain, on which the first efforts of the learner may be made as inclination may guide him. The other side may have two compartments. The upper may be divided into squares, and the lower into ruled lines. He may then sometimes divide his black board into compartments, similar to those which have been drawn on the slates, and place the copy in one of them, in order that the idea of place and posi tion may be communicated; and for obvious reasons, he may sometimes proceed to describe the form which is to be imitated, between lines.

[Mr. Wilson's method of teaching arithmetic, though it is a decided improvement, on that which is in common use, is not, in our view, so simple and practical as that contained in Part III. of the valuable little work entitled Hints to Parents. We omit therefore the details of Mr. Wilson's plan; and, at our first opportunity, we will give a sketch of the system of instruction recommended in the book we have mentioned.]

(To be continued.)

PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN HOLLAND.

[A FRIEND has put into our hands a pamphlet entitled 'New System of Education; or Mutual Iustruction applied to the languages, the sciences, and the arts, &c. by M. le Compte De Lasteyrie.——Paris 1819.——(*Transl.*)——The most interesting

passage of this work is that which contains an extract from M. Cuvier's Report on the primary schools of Holland. This part of Count Lasteyrie's pamphlet Dr. Griscom has thrown into the Appendix of his valuable Address on monitorial instruction; and as this gentleman's translation is both neat and accurate, we shall employ it for the double purpose of recording facts highly important in the history of education, and of inducing those of our readers who have not yet seen Dr. Griscom's book, to embrace the earliest opportunity of perusing it.

To the friend of improvement in education we can furnish no matter more interesting than that contained in the following report. The spirit which pervades its details, is that precisely which we could wish to infuse into every individual, and every body of men, entrusted with the superintendence or with the actual business of instruction. We leave this article to speak for itself: it will prove we think much more eloquent in behalf of improvement, than could any remark of ours.]

It would be difficult for us to describe the effect produced upon us by the first primary school which we entered in Holland. It was one of those supported by public charity, for the children of the most indigent families, those who in many other countries would be obliged to drag out a miserable life, on the highways, either as mendicants or robbers. Two large, airy, and well-lighted halls, contained three hundred of these children, all in cleanly condition, placing themselves, without disorder, noise, or impoliteness, and performing, at a concerted signal, all that was required of them, without the master's uttering, necessarily, a single word. Not only do they learn by certain and ready methods, to read currently, to write a fine hand, and with entire correctness to perform mentally and by figures, all the calculations necessary in common life, and also to state their thoughts neatly in little essays; but the books which are given them, the pieces which they copy, are so well arranged, and succeed each other in an order so judicious, the precepts and examples are mingled with so much art, that these children become penetrated, at the same time, with the truths of religion, the precepts of morality, and all the knowledge which can be useful in active life, or consoling to them in misfortune. Care is taken to ascertain, by frequent questions, and by exciting them to state their difficulties, that nothing of what they read is lost upon their understandings.

Finally, prayers, and hymns sung in concert, composed expressly for the purpose, and breathing the sentiments of duty or gratitude, give a charm to this instruction, and, at the same time, impress a religious and tender feeling, well calculated to confirm its

effects. A master and two assistants, taken from the scholars themselves, govern this large number of children without noise, without invective, without any corporal punishment, but by keeping them always interested and always occupied.

The first sight of this school gave us an agreeable surprise: when we had entered into all the details we could not avoid a real emotion, in thinking of what these children would have become, if abandoned to themselves, and what they actually were; but, we said to ourselves, this is perhaps a solitary example, produced by the efforts of a wealthy city, or by the zeal of a few citizens of extraordinary generosity.

We were informed, however, that, as we advanced through the country, we should divest ourselves of this error; and, in fact, we found everywhere the primary schools upon the same footing, with the exception of those in which the masters, *from age or habit, could not disengage themselves from their old routine.* It is not even in the cities that they are the best. Even on the frontiers of Groningen, and many leagues from the great road, we found, in the villages, primary schools as numerous, and better composed, and better kept than those of the largest towns; because, in the cities, the children of the rich are taught in their own houses, whereas in the villages they go to school with others: but everywhere we observed the same cheerfulness, the same decency, the same neatness in the pupils and the masters; and everywhere the same instruction.

What is the most remarkable on this subject is, that these great results have been obtained in a few years, and by simple means, without constraint, without requiring of the masters any sacrifice, and without uniting them by any other means than by their natural obligations as public functionaries. A brief recital of this important operation belongs essentially to our subject.

Thirty years ago, the little schools of Holland resembled those of other countries. Masters, almost as ignorant as those they were bound to instruct, were scarcely successful, in the course of several years, in teaching their pupils to read and write indifferently. These schools had no general superintendents; the greater number originated in private speculation; various religious communions supported schools for their own poor, under the supervision of deacons, but these schools were exclusively reserved for the children of the parish; those whose parents were not inscribed in some church had no resources; even the catholics had no schools, though their churches were so numerous in the country; the deacons of the reformed churches changing, agreeably to a certain order, had no fixed principles. The result of all this was, that a great part of the youth were stagnating in ignorance and immorality.

The first ameliorations were produced by the efforts of a benevolent society called the '*Society of Public Good*,' which itself owed its formation to the zeal of a pious and humane individual.

John Neuven-Huysen, a Mennonite minister, at Monikendam, in North Holland, perceived that the numerous associations formed in the United Provinces for the advancement of commerce, and science, and charity, although they contributed to spread among the people moral and religious ideas, did not produce all the effects which were desired, because the works which they published were too extended, too learned, and too dear to be purchased by those for whom they were destined, and because there existed no point of connection sufficiently intimate between them and that portion of the people to whom their assistance was the most necessary.

Having conceived a plan more simple, and a procedure more direct, he began about 1784, to associate with him a few friends; these attracted others; the utility of the thing once known, multiplied the number of members, so that, from 1785, they were obliged to divide the association according to the cantons in which were the greatest number of subscribers. These divisions were called departments; each of which had its own administration, and the number of them extended as the society increased. In truth, the advantages of the institution were so apparent to charitable men; and the various governments which succeeded each other in Holland shared so fully in the public persuasion, that it enjoyed a continually increasing prosperity, and in 1809 it included more than seven thousand members.

The early funds of the society were employed in encouraging, by premiums, the composition of little works which treated in a popular manner of the most important truths of religion and morality. To these were added by degrees, publications on the principles most important to be understood, of domestic and rural economy, natural philosophy, and hygiene, or the preservation of health. Some of them treated of particular professions, not neglecting even the propagation of vaccination and instruction in midwifery. The effect of these works, simple, short, and cheap, was soon apparent. There was in Holland, as in other places, a popular work styled 'the Shepherd's Almanac,' filled with puerile prescriptions derived from astrology; and, as in other places, the country people wished no other. The society prepared a Calendar, in which these follies were displaced by useful observations on agriculture, or conversations on health; and its success was such that in two or three years, the editor of the Shepherd's Almanac was obliged to renounce his publication.

In the meanwhile, education was the principal object of the studies and operation of the 'Society of Public Good;' and the his-

tory of its labors in this respect may be divided into three distinct branches: 1st. The researches which it excited, on the physical education of children, as well as on the best method of instruction and moral education. 2d. The preparation of elementary books, to aid in putting these methods in practice. 3d. The schools which it founded, not with the intention of holding them permanently, and still less of assuming the general charge of primary instruction, but to offer temporarily to common schools, models by which they might attain to greater perfection.

Besides these schools, which are destined only for those children, which the members of the society might place in them, some of its departments actually established gratuitous schools for the poor; and the greater number of them formed little libraries, with the view of affording the workmen and workwomen, after quitting the schools, the means of rational and profitable entertainment.

Various towns, excited by the example and encouragement of the society, undertook the renovation and extension of their schools. It was thus that the magistrates of Amsterdam, following, in 1797, the advice of the two departments of that city, undertook the erection of their noble schools for the benefit of the poor that were not enregistered in any church,—schools which now include (1812) more than 4000 children of both sexes.*

But in 1801, 1803, and 1806, the general government gave to the society testimonials of its esteem, and conformed to the advice of many of its members, in the measures it adopted, at those three periods, for the reform and general organisation of primary instruction.

The law of the third of April 1806, is still the regulation by which all the primary schools are governed.

The number of schools and pupils is already very remarkable. There were in Holland, at the time of the union, 4451 primary schools of all classes, and more than 190,000 pupils, for a population of one million nine hundred thousand souls; which constitutes one tenth of the inhabitants, and proves that the greater part of the children of an age to go to school are actually in attendance. Indeed, several of the prefects, especially that of Groningen, assured us, that, at present, not a single young man can be found in their department, that cannot read and write.

The formal and regular instruction of the public schools consists in reading, caligraphy, orthography, mental and common arithmetic, some elements of drawing, geometry, and geography, and the singing of hymns. But the books in which the children are made to read, the subjects which are dictated to them, the examples

* Amsterdam had had, from 1746, but two charity schools. In 1819, there were eleven.

which they copy, the hymns and cantiques which are given them to chaunt, all tend to penetrate their minds, and give them, almost insensibly, an infinity of other useful knowledge.

The composition, choice, and gradation of books, constitute the basis of the system. There is an astonishing number of them, each one having had the liberty of proposing his own: but M. Vanden-Ende has reduced, by order of the minister of the interior, a catalogue of the best, which he has distributed agreeably to their contents, in the order in which they are to succeed each other in the classes.

Those to be first used, are accompanied with suitable pictures for impressing on the minds of children the knowledge of exterior objects, and of connecting in their memories the words to the ideas which they represent. Next follow short moral histories or stories, calculated to interest them. From these they proceed to others, which treat of those objects of nature which are most curious and useful to man; processes of art most necessary to be understood; and throughout the whole are interspersed, without affectation, useful reflections on Providence, and on the duties of men to each other. Sacred history, profane history, and the history of the country, treated in such a way as to take with children, are the subjects of other little works. In some of them are explained the principles of civil and criminal law. In teaching them to draw, or rather to trace regular lines, they are made to judge of length and of angles by the eye, and equal care is taken to render all their other exercises practical, and subservient to the purposes of morality and utility.

The consequence is, that children thus taught have engraven on their minds, while simply learning to read, write, and calculate, things which the scholars of ordinary schools never learn, or learn only with difficulty, when their profession permits them to read, after leaving school; and which inspire them with just and noble sentiments, which the world will doubtless weaken, but of which it will never entirely efface the impression.

Almost as much has been written for teachers as for scholars; the method which they are to follow, and the questions they are to put to their scholars, are pointed out in each of their respective works.

The means contrived for instructing in religion children of every different persuasion, without exposing them to dangerous controversies, is exceedingly ingenious, and at the same time truly respectable. The particular dogmas of each christian communion are treated on Sundays by each minister in his church. The history of the New Testament, the life and doctrine of Jesus Christ, and the dogmas in which christians agree, are explained in the schools

on Saturdays, when no Jews are present on account of their sabbath; but the truths common to all religions, are intimately interwoven with all the branches of instruction; and to these the others all stand related.

The distribution of time is generally two hours in the morning, and two hours in the afternoon for ordinary scholars; and two hours in the evening for young people that have left school, and gone to some occupation, but are still desirous to be perfected in what they have learned. This evening school is an institution of the greatest utility, not only confirming the benefits of the other, but also withdrawing the youth from infinite sources of disorder and corruption.

It remains to be stated, how it is, that so many children are taught at once to read and write, a thing so difficult, that it is hard to imagine, at an advanced age, how it could have been acquired in childhood.

The smaller scholars are placed on benches one behind another, and opposite to a black board. The master has his letters on small blocks which he attaches successively to the board, by grooves or any other mechanism. That which strikes and amuses children the most, is best. He directs their attention to the form of each letter, and teaches them its sound, beginning with the vowels, and proceeding to the simple sounds of the diphthongs, and then to consonants, simple or compound, which are designated by their sounds, by adding only an *e* mute. Forty or fifty children look on at once, and pronounce together; and repeat in the same manner when prepared, easy syllables and words which the master exhibits to them in the same manner. The ignorant are thus taught without the weariness of personal attention, and without the risk of being scolded. Whole words are read together in chorus, and it is then only that books are given to them, and they are made to read singly: in this exercise, they are even made to read at hazard, in order that the eyes of all may be obliged to follow the reader.*

Writing follows nearly the same process: forty or fifty children, furnished with little slates and pencils of talc, follow with their eyes whatever the master traces on the large board. From simple strokes they are conducted to letters, and thence, (as soon as they can name them,) to syllables and words, at first agreeably to the model, and afterwards from dictation. As they advance in orthography, they are exercised in correcting, verbally, phrases pur-

* It is almost needless to remark, that the manner in which reading is taught in the schools of Holland, bears a near resemblance to that of Lancaster. It is the same with writing, but with this important difference, that in the new method, reading and writing are simultaneously taught, and consequently the children experience less difficulty, and learn more rapidly. Dr. G.

posely written with faults, upon the board. Questions are finally put to them, which they are obliged to answer in writing; and thus they are led on to the art of composing letters, and such other essays as the people have occasion to practise.

We have stated that, while they are learning to read and write, the choice of their lessons affords them an infinite number of useful ideas. Care is taken to impress these ideas on their minds by questions, varied and repeated in every form. Other questions lead them to the definition and propriety of terms, and to the distinguishing of apparent synonymes and homonymes. Upon none of these subjects is the master abandoned to his own imagination; for the numerous books furnish him with all possible questions.

In geography, they commence with a plan of their own city or town, drawn upon a large scale on the wall, and they are made to distinguish the cardinal points and directions of the streets. They are next shown a map of their canton, then of their province, and thus by degrees they proceed to the map of the world. All these maps are large, and but few places are marked upon them in order that their first ideas may not become confused; and it is only towards the conclusion that they are taught from common maps. A summary idea of the sphere finishes geography, instead of commencing it, as in almost all our books.*

What is the most astonishing, is the calmness and rapidity with which all this is executed. The master has scarcely need to speak, except to ask his questions. The pupils have signs for every thing which they wish to ask for. When a question is put, all those who think they can answer it, raise a finger, and the master selects the respondent: in a word, nothing is heard but what the lesson rigorously requires.

This tranquillity and decency of manner, are one of the principal objects of education. All the children are obliged to present themselves with hands and faces washed. In coming in, even the smallest know how to slide into their places, without saying a word. In the schools for the poor, where they are furnished with books and paper, the first on each bench, at the end of the lesson collects all that has been employed on his bench: in the other schools, each child has a little box in which he places his own articles, and their ambition is excited to keep every thing in the best order. Not even a hat-nail is left neglected by Dutch precision.

* We cannot permit the mention of the method of instruction in this department, to pass, without earnestly entreating the particular attention of every parent and every teacher to this plan. The first lessons in this branch can be given by parents themselves; and in the present imperfect state of school-books on geography, this would perhaps be the most successful mode of elementary instruction. When the aid of parents cannot be conveniently obtained, teachers should endeavor to supply, by oral and practical lessons, whatever is deficient in the books used at school.—Ed.

These details may appear trifling; but there are none of them which do not tend to influence the habits of a whole life. Far, then, from despising or neglecting them, we should incline to study more profoundly all the circumstances connected with them, well persuaded that a vast number of these particulars ought to be spread into all the schools of the empire, where they would produce the most marked effects upon the manners of the lower classes.

The attention of so great a number of children is supported by two principal means. The first consists in the choice of what is said to them, and in endeavoring to interest them. In the commencement, the teachers play with them; and, when once they can read, instead of giving them, as with us, only one book, and which very often they cannot understand, a variety is presented to them, which always contain something new, and adapted to their age. The second means is a mild emulation, which is carefully preserved from degenerating into unkindness. The first scholar of each bench keeps a list of the good or bad answers of each of the others, and of all their faults. This statement is every day posted up, and the account of each day noted at the end of the week. The name of the best scholar of each class is honorably exhibited; and in a particular place also the name of the worst. When the town committee, or the superintendent of the canton arrive, they give to the best scholars certificates which they show to their parents. At the end of the year, also, examinations are made and prizes given. A wise employment of these means has justified the entire abolition of corporal punishments.

One thing, however, shocked our habits in the Dutch schools; and that is that girls are admitted along with the boys. But we were everywhere assured that no inconvenience from it had ever been remarked; and, as this custom prevails not only in the schools for the poor, but in all the village schools, where parents pay a good price for tuition, and where they might of course otherwise dispose of their children, we have been obliged to give faith to this testimony.

Children on leaving these schools are much sought after, both for domestic servants and apprentices to trades; a proof that their education stands high in public estimation.

Nothing further remains with respect to the history of primary instruction, than to explain in what manner schools so numerous can be furnished with masters sufficiently capable; and it is here, in a particular manner, that the established system manifests itself in all its fecundity.

They have no need of normal classes, nor of seminaries for schoolmasters, nor of any expensive or complicated means con-

trived in other countries. It is in the primary schools themselves that masters are formed, and that without requiring any particular expense.* The *Society of Public Good* has also the merit of having first contrived this simple and efficacious method. It grants to the best pupils gratuitous instruction, and permits them to remain in the schools two or three years longer than others, on condition of their engaging in the business of instruction. As the condition of schoolmasters has become, by degrees, more honorable and lucrative, as the schools have advanced in improvement, the number of competitors has increased in the same proportion. Those two or three additional years of study, are employed in the enlargement and perfection of their knowledge; and these young people afterwards become assistants to their masters, and teach the younger scholars; they then pass to the station of sub-masters; and as the inspectors of the cantons are constant witnesses of their zeal and success, they recommend them according to their merit, to places which may be vacant, and continue to watch over them, for their advancement agreeably to their deserts. When there is no other mode of nomination, a rivalship of skill is instituted; and then their merit alone recommends them. The career is so certain, that there are some, as we have been told, who pay for the privilege of commencing their trade under good masters.

It was in 1800, that this method was employed for the first time in the free schools of Amsterdam; and there have already been obtained a first master, eight first sub-masters, and all the adjuncts actually on duty. Many instructers have also issued from these schools, for places in other cities and villages.

HISTORICAL SKETCH OF THE PUBLIC LATIN SCHOOL IN BOSTON.

[The following sketch of this ancient and venerable institution will, we think, be highly gratifying to most of our readers. It is taken from 'Prize Book No. IV of the Public Latin School in Boston',—a publication equally valuable to the student of American history, and to the friend of improvement in education.]

It is grateful to look back upon the picture of primitive, but enlightened simplicity exhibited in the early history of New England,

* This is one of the many practical advantages of mutual instruction. The training of teachers is an essential part of the system; and as far as primary education is concerned, a separate institution for the benefit of instructers is rendered unnecessary.—Ed.

and to arrest, as far as possible, the progress of decay by which its already indistinct lines are rapidly faiding from our view.

There appear to have been no public accounts preserved of the first three years after the settlement of Boston; and those of the first half century often resemble Arabic more than modern English writing; and can now be read only by the antiquary. The first entry on the book of records of the town is of a date no earlier than "1634, 7th month, day 1." During the remainder of that year, the chief business of the public meetings appears to have regarded the most obvious and immediate necessities of an infant settlement, as the allotment of lands, care of cattle, direction of highways, and similar municipal regulations; ecclesiastical affairs, which constituted the most prominent feature in the character of the Fathers of New England, being transacted in the church, and forming no part of the Records of the town, as such. But they did not suffer a longer period to elapse, than until the 13th of the 2d month, (viz. April,) 1635, before it is stated as a part of the transactions of a public meeting, "Likewise it was then generally agreed upon that our brother Philemon Pormont [or Purment] shalbe intreated to become scholemaster for the teaching and nourtering of children with us." To Mr. Purment was assigned a tract of thirty acres of land at "Muddy River," now, it is believed, a part of Brookline, and the grant publicly confirmed, with others, in 1637.

That this person, however, was not the only individual of his profession within the new town, appears from an assignment of a "garden plott to Mr. Danyell Maude, schoolemaster, upon the condition of building thereon, if neede be." It is not certain he kept a school within the town, nevertheless; and from the mention of "The Schoolmaster," incidentally, ten years after, it would seem that Mr. Purment was alone in that office.

The General Court of Massachusetts having, at a previous period,* granted to the town of Boston several of the Islands, with which the bay is so beautifully interspersed, the Records state, that in 1641, "It's ordered that Deare Island shall be improved for the maintenance of a Free schoole for the Towne, and such other occasions as the Townsmen for the time being shall thinke meet, the sayd schoole being sufficiently provided for." Capt. Edward Gibbon was soon after intrusted with the care and use of the island, "until the towne doe let the same." Accordingly, in 1644 it was let for three years, at the rate of seven pounds per annum, expressly for the use of the school. In 1647, at the expiration of this lease, it was again let for seven years, and the rent was now "four-

* Town Records, vol. 2 on the first written leaf.

teen pounds per annum for the Scoles use in provision and clothing." This lease was extended in 1648 to twenty one years, at the same rate of rent. The next year Long Island and Spectacle Island were placed on similar footing, and the Selectmen were to take order that they be leased, paying a yearly rent on every acre, rated afterwards at sixpence, for the use of the School.

It seems to have been the design of the community to endow their free school, as they delight to name it, with bequests in their wills, lands rented on long leases, and similar sources of income, after the English manner, in preference to a direct support from the public treasury. Thus in 1649, Wm. Phillips "agreed to give 13s. 4d. per ann. forever to the use of the Schoole for the land that Christopher Stanley gave in his will to the Schoole's use." Forty shillings per annum for the same use were secured by lease of 500 acres of land at Braintree, and several other sums on different lands belonging to the Town, at about the same date. In 1654 "It is ordered, that the ten pounds left by legacy to y^e^ schoole of Boston by mis Hudson deceased, shall be lett to Capt. James Oliver for sixteen shillings per ann. so long as hee pleases to improve itt," &c. Orders were also taken for collecting rents on "Deare Island, Long Island, and Spectacle Island due to the use of y^e^ Schoole," and the renters were required to appear yearly and transact this concern. The first named Island was leased in 1662 to Sir Thos. Temple, knight and "Barronight," as the scribe of the day quaintly spells it, for 31 years, at £14 per ann. " to be paid yearly every first day of March to the Towne Treasurer for the use of the free schoole," About four years after this, however, a release of several rents for the Islands and other lands was made, the support of the school arising, doubtless, in great measure, from other funds.

It does not appear from the Records at what period Mr Purment died, or ceased to instruct, or whether Mr. Maude was his successor or not. But before 1650 another person had been introduced into the charge of instructing youth, for at that date is the following record. "It is alsoe agreed on that Mr. Woodmansey y^e^ schoolmaster shall have fiftye pounds p. an. for his teaching y^e^ schollers and his p'portion to be made up by ratte." This gentleman is further named in 1652 on occasion of a sale of land by the town, with reservation to the inhabitants of a right to "inlarge the skoolehouse;" and it appears that the house in which he lived was the town's property, and situated near the place of his professional employment, with only one lot between, which belonged to the School house.* The rent of this lot was subsequently assigned to

*Town Records, 1653.

him, and by the record of the transaction he is named Robert. This was in 1657.*

The affairs of the Free School of Boston continued to proceed in their usual train, until 1666, when the town "agreed with Mr. Dannell Hincheman for 40£ per Ann. to assist Mr. Woodmansey in the grammar Schoole and teach childrē to wright, the yeare to begine the 1th of March $\frac{65}{6}$." Soon after this it is recorded that Mr. Jones was sent for by the Selectmen "for keeping a schoole," and "required to performe his promise to the Towne in the winter to remove himselfe and familye in the springe, and forbiden to keep schoole any longer." He had, apparently, instructed a private school without leave.

In 1667, Mr. Benjamin Tompson was "made choice of by the select men for to officiate in the place of the scholemaster for one yeare, Mr. Hull being appointed to agree, for tearmes, what to allow hime per annū." Mr. Woodmansey appears to have died about this period, for in December 1669 it is recorded as follows: "ordered Mr. Raynsford to give notice to Mrs. Woodmansey that the towne occasions need the use of the schoole house, and to desire her to provide otherwise for her selfe." A considerate and respectful care of her convenience and comfort, however, was taken by the fathers of the town; for, in less than three months after this warning, "upon the request of Mrs. Margaret Woodmansey widdowe—to provide her a house to live in, if she removeth from the schoole house: It was granted to allow her eight pounds per an. for that end, dureinge her widdowhood."

Under the date 22. 10th (answering to December,) 1670, our venerable authority proceeds: "At a Meetinge of the honrd. Govern^{r}. Richard Bellingham Esq. Major Generall John Leveret, Edward Tynge Esq^{r} Majestrates, Mr. John Mayo, Mr. John Oxenbridge, Mr. Thomas Thatcher, and Mr. James Allen Eld^{rs} Capt. Thomas Lake, Capt. James Olliver, Mr. John Richards, and John Joyliffe selectmen of Bostone. It was ordered and agreed that Mr. Ezechiell Chevers, Mr. Tomson & Mr. Hinksman should be at the Govern^{rs} house that day sevennight to treate with them concerninge the free schoole."

The celebrated Mr. Cheever is here for the first time mentioned in connection with the instruction of youth in our metropolis. His distinguished character demands a peculiar attention. And indeed

*In the year preceding is the following entry on the records: "It is ordered y^{t} y^{e} selectmen shall have liberty to lay outt a piece of ground outt of y^{e} townes land w^{ch} they give to y^{e} building of a house for instruction of y^{e} youth of y^{e} towne." An errour of the scribe would seem to have occurred here in the use of the word *give*—intended, most probably, for *gave*. And this order, together with one of the same year, respecting "building the schoole house chimney," proves that but one school then existed in town.

he is introduced with sufficient stateliness; for on the 29th of the same month, "At a Meetinge of the" same gentlemen as above, with the addition of Mr. Hezekiah Usher, "it was agreed and ordered that Mr. Ezechiell Cheevers should be called to & installed in the free schoole as head Master thereof, which he, being then present, accepted of: likewise that Mr. Thomson should be invited to be an assistant to Mr. Cheevers in his worke in the schoole; wh^{ch} Mr. Tompson beinge present, desired time to consider of, and to give his answere;—And upon the third day of January, gave his answere to Major Generall Leveret in the negative, he havinge had and accepted of, a call to Charlestowne." On the 6th day of the next month, the same honorable gentlemen, excepting Mr. Usher, "beinge met repaired to the schoole and sent for Mr. Tomson who, when he came, declared his removall to Charlestowne—and resigned up the possestion of the schoole and schoole house to the Govern^{r} &ca, who delivered the key and possestion of the schoole house to Mr. Ezechiell Cheevers as the sole Mast^{r}. thereof. And it was farther agreed that the said Mr. Cheevers should be allowed sixtie pounds p. an. for his seruice in the schoole, out of the towne rates, and rents that belonge to the schoole—and the possestion, and use of y^{e} schoole house." On the 30th of the same month, "Ordered to Mr. Benjamin Thompson schoolmast^{r} tenn pounds out of the Towne treasury beside his yearly salery to be ended the 25th of this January."

Thus far we have carefully gleaned from the venerable records of Boston all they contain that relates to the system of her free instruction, with a very few exceptions only, referring to occasional repairs of buildings and arrangement of rents. The subsequent extracts will be only occasional. Without question, much more might be gained than we shall take occasion to mention; and it might not be amiss to continue the investigation, and trace the progress of a policy in the education of her youth, which is the wisdom and the glory of Boston.

Mr. Cheever appears to have been a man whom the people "delighted to honor." At the time he entered on his new charge, he was in his 56th year, and had been an Instructer of youth at New-Haven, where it is supposed he wrote his "Accidence," at Ipswich, and at Charlestown.* He was distinguished for piety as well as learning, and his grateful pupil, the second Dr. Mather, whose father also had been bred under the same master, has left a valuable memorial of zealous affection and duty in the character he gave of his venerated tutor. This has been almost the only document from which any accounts of him have hitherto been drawn. An extract will be interesting.

* Hist. Coll. vol. viii. First Series.

"We generally concur in acknowledging that New England has never known a better teacher. * * * * It was noted, that when scholars came to be admitted into the College, they who came from the *Cheeverian education* were generally the most unexceptionable." Particular notice is taken of "his piety, and his care to infuse documents of piety into the schollars under his charge, that he might carry them with him to the heavenly world. He so constantly prayed with us every day, and catechised us every week, and let fall such holy counsels upon us; he took so many occasions to make speeches to us, that should make us afraid of sin, and of incurring the fearful judgments of God by sin; that I do propose him for imitation. He lived as a master, the term which has been for above three thousand years, assigned for the life of a man; he continued to the ninety fourth year of his age—his intellectual force as little abated as his natural."

He died Aug. 21, 1708—"venerable," says Governor Hutchinson, in his History of Massachusetts,* "not merely for his great age, 94, but for having been the schoolmaster of most of the principal gentlemen in Boston who were then upon the stage."

Soon after the period of Mr. Cheever's death, the following important passage occurs in the Records of the town. "The Committee chosen by the town the 19th of December 1709 last, to consider the Affaires relating to y^e^ Free-Grammer-School of^f^ this Town, haveing now made their report unto y^e^ Town as followeth, viz. Wee have discoursed with Mr. [Nathaniel] Williams the present master, of whose qualifications and fitness for that employment, we take for granted every body must be abundantly satisfied. He expresses a good Inclination to the worke; and his resolution intirely to devote him Selfe thereto. If the Town please to Encourage his continuance therein, by allowing him a competent Sallary, that he may support his family, and Granting him an Assistant. He is very Sencible of the Advantage of the Assistance lately afforded him, both with respect to his health and also as to y^e^ Schollars. We are of opinion the worke of that School does Necessarily require the Attendance of a master and an Usher, and it Seem's Impracticable for one person alone, well to Oversee the manners of so great a number of Schollars (oft-times more than a hundred). To hear their dayly^t^ Exercises, and Instruct them to that degree of profitting, which otherwise may be with an Assistant. We Recommend it to the Town, to Encourage m^r^ William's continuance in the School, by advancing his Sallary to the Sum of One hundred pounds pr. Annum, which we think to be a modest demand, and to grant him the assistance of an Usher, at the Towns charge. In

* Vol. ii. p. 175, note.

which we have y^e^ concurrent Opinion and Advice of y^e^ Revr^d^ Ministers. We further propose and recommend, as of Great Service and Advantage for the promoting of Diligence and good-Literature, That the Town Agreeably to the Usage in England, and (as we understand) in Some time past practiced here, Do Nominate and Appoint a Certain number of Gentlemen of Liberal Education, Together with some of y^e^ Rev^d^ Ministers of the Town, to be Inspectors of the S^d^ Schools under That name Title, or denomination, to Visit y^e^ School from time to time, when and as Oft, as they Shall think fit, To Enform themselves of the Methodes Used in Teaching of the Schollars, and to Inquire of their Proficiency, and be present at the performance of Some of their Exercises, the Master being before notified of their comeing, And with him to Consult and Advise of further Methods for y^e^ Advancement of Learning and the good Government of the Schools. And at their s^d^ Visitation, One of the Ministers by turn's to pray with the Schollars, and Entertain'em with Some Instructions of Piety Specially Adapted to their age and Education."*

In the mean time, that is, from the period of Mr. Cheever's installation to that of master Lovell's, the elder, the increase of the town required new schools. As early as 1682 it was voted by the inhabitants, "that a Committee with the Selectmen consider of and provide one or more free schools for the teaching of children to write and cypher within this town." And on the 30th of April following, "it was voted by the said Committee, consisting of Messrs. Elisha Cooke, Simon Lynde, and John Fayerweather, with the Selectmen, 1st. that two schools shall be provided and agreed for; 2d. that the town shall allow £25 per ann. for each school, for the present, and that such persons as send their Children to school (that are able) should pay something to the Master for his better encouragement in his work."†

At the town-meeting in March 1711 it was voted, that there be a free Grammar School at the north end. Thanks were also voted to Capt. Thomas Hutchinson, for offering at his own charge to build the school-house there, and it was resolved, "That the Townes wharfe, Dock and Flats at the North Battree be appropriated towards the support of the Free Grammar School at the North end of Boston,‡ and that the improvement of the said wharfe, Dock and Flatts be recommended to the Selectmen and Committee afore appointed referring to the said School." The next entry respecting it is of the date of March 1712–13, when it was "left with the

* Boston Records, Vol. ii. pp. 307, 8.

† Extracts from the Records, politely furnished by the City Clerk.

‡ The rent of Winnisimet ferry was also subsequently assigned to this school.

Selectmen, and they are empowered to introduce Mr. Recompense Wadsworth as a Schoolmaster at the North, and to allow him £60. p. one year." After this gentleman, Mr. Thomas Robie was invited, in 1719, but did not accept, and the town, after voting to wait no longer, resolved, "that Mr. Peleg Wiswall be by the Selectmen invited to take the charge as Master of the Free Gramer School at y^e^ North." Ten years after this it is recorded, that, "Inasmuch as the Gramer School at the North End of the Towne of which Mr. Peleg Wiswall is the Master is much Increased in the number of the Schollers, and that no Usher is allowed to assist him in his School: Voted, that there be an addition of forty Pounds to the said Mr. Wiswall's salary." By this vote his compensation was rendered equal to that which had been assigned to Mr. Williams in the Grammar School at the South.

Mr. Wiswall graduated at Harvard College 1702, and died in 1767, at the age of eighty-four years. Mr. Ephraim Langdon, who graduated 1752, was for several years assistant master, while Mr. Wiswall was laboring under the infirmities of age. He died in 1764 or 1765. In 1768 Mr. Samuel Hunt was introduced to the charge of this school and continued in it till 1776; when he was appointed master of the South Latin School. Mr. Nathan Davies succeeded Mr. Hunt in the North Latin School. He was a worthy man and an accomplished scholar, but too meek and diffident to govern boys. He continued till the new system of education was established in 1790, when this school was abolished.

But let us return to the South Latin School, which is that in which we are particularly interested, and which, since the year 1790, has been the only Public Latin School in Boston. Mr. Nathaniel Williams, who graduated at Harvard College, 1693, succeeded Mr. Cheever. Mr. Williams was ordained an evangelist for one of the West India islands, 1698; but, as the climate proved unfriendly to his constitution, he returned soon after to his native town. In 1708 he was appointed master of this, as Mr. Prince calls it, "the principal school of the British colonies, if not in all America," and continued in the charge of it till 1734. When in the West Indies, Mr. Williams applied himself to the study of medicine, and after his return to Boston entered into practice as a physician. When he took charge of the Latin School he was persuaded by his friends, who had employed him, not to relinquish his profession. He continued, therefore, to practise as a physician in many families; and after he relinquished the school on account of his infirmities, he past the remainder of his days in the practice of medicine. "He was called," says his biographer, "the 'beloved physician,' and was so agreeable in his manners, that when he entered the chambers of the sick, 'his voice and countenance did

good like medicine.' Amidst the multiplicity of his duties as instructer, and physician, in extensive practice, he never left the *ministerial work.*"* He resigned his office in 1734. He died, January 15th, 1738, at the age of sixty-three years. The celebrated Jeremy Gridley was for a time assistant to Mr. Williams; but in 1730, being about to commence the career in which he afterwards became so distinguished, he left the school; and was succeeded by Mr. John Lovell, who in 1734 was promoted to the office of head master. Mr. Lovell was graduated at Harvard College in 1728; two years before his appointment to the place of assistant to Mr. Williams. After his promotion he continued to discharge the duties of that important station for nearly forty-two years with great skill and fidelity.* When Boston was evacuated by the British troops, in March, 1776, Mr Lovell retired with the loyalists to Halifax, where he spent the remainder of his life.

Most of our distinguished scholars and men of eminence in church and state, at that time, had been under his tuition. That Mr. Lovell was an excellent critic and accomplished classical scholar, we have abundant testimony. The following extract from a eulogy on the late Judge Minot, contains a very delicate and pleasing tribute to his memory; which is the more valuable, as coming from a pupil whose pre-eminent talents and virtues have long rendered him the delight of his friends and society; and whose taste and learning shed a lustre on the name of his venerated instructer.

"In the ninth year of his age he was admitted into the South Latin School in Boston, at that time under the care of Mr. Lovell, a gentleman of classical knowledge and exquisite taste. As I was always convinced that this eminent instructer had a large share in forming the character of my friend, I enjoy a melancholy satisfaction in mentioning his name, and in paying the tribute of grateful respect to his memory."

Mr. Lovell usually passed the two vacations, one of which was at Election, and the other at Commencement, with a fishing party, at Spot Pond, in Stoneham. "And," says his pupil already quoted, "the boys heard with glee that he and the gentlemen who accompanied him passed their time pleasantly in telling funny stories and laughing very loudly."

There was a dwelling house and an extensive garden furnished by the town for Mr. Lovell. The house was situated in School-street, nearly in front of the new Court-house; and the garden extended back towards Court-street, about as far as the spot where the jail now stands. This garden was cultivated for Mr.

* Eliot's Biography.

Lovell in the best manner, free of all expense, by the assistance of the best boys in the school; who, as a reward of merit, were permitted to work in it. The same good boys were also indulged with the high privilege of sawing his wood and bottling his cider, and of laughing as much as they pleased while performing these delightful offices.

The *first Latin School-house* was situated in the burying ground of King's Chapel; nearly opposite to the present school-house; and was removed, in 1748, at the expense of the proprietors of that church, for their own accommodation. "April 4th, 1748, the church petitioned the town for a grant of forty-four feet of land east of the old Chapel; and proposed to give the town a lot of land at the upper end of a lane or passage fronting the present school-house, and to erect thereon a new school-house of like dimensions with the present,"* &c. Mr. Lovell was unfriendly to the views of the church, and threw obstacles in the way. Nevertheless, on "April 18th, 1748, the town agreed to grant to King's Chapel a piece of land, to enlarge and rebuild; and to take down the old Latin Grammar School-house, at a tumultuous meeting, voting by *written yeas* and *nays*. Yeas 205; nays 197."*

After much vexation and expense, the proprietors of King's Chapel built a school-house on the spot where the present one stands; a part of the western wall of which is incorporated with the present building.

Mr. Nathaniel Gardner, who left school in 1735, and college in 1739, was afterwards assistant in it. Mr. Gardner was a fine scholar, a poet, and a wit.

The late Mr. James Lovell was afterwards assistant to his father for many years. He also kept a private school for writing and ciphering from eleven to twelve, and from five to six in the afternoon. Mr. James Lovell claims the merit of being the first public instructer in Boston, who introduced an easy and compendious method of teaching arithmetic.

After Mr. Lovell left Boston in 1776, the school was shut for a short time; but before the year had expired, Mr. Samuel Hunt was appointed his successor, and taken from the North Latin School. Mr Hunt continued at the head of the school till 1805; and was then succeeded by Mr. William Biglow; who left the school in 1814.

[In May, 1814, the charge of the Latin school was committed to Mr. Benjamin A. Gould; under whose able management it still continues.

* Records of King's Chapel.

There were at that time, but about thirty-two or three scholars. Among the causes which operated to make the school an object of more importance to the instructer, and consequently of more value to the public, was the raising of the salary, at the time mentioned, to double what it had ever been before. The salary, regularly so called, was one thousand dollars; but, for some years, a grant of two hundred dollars had been annually made in addition. It was, at the time of Mr. Gould's appointment, raised to two thousand dollars. This consideration we think an important one in reference to other institutions of a similar nature; as there is generally no disposition to make the salaries of instructers a sufficient object to individuals who have good prospects in either of the learned professions; and as the highly satisfactory result of the experiment made in the Latin school of Boston, evinces that liberality to teachers is gain to the community. *Editor.*]

In 1814, some measures were adopted by the school committee to give an additional impulse to this school, and to render it better fitted to meet the wants of the community than it then was. At that time the school had a principal and one assistant, with about thirty-five scholars. Among the most important changes which then took place was a regulation that boys should be admitted but *once a year*, according to the ancient usage of this school, to prevent thereby the continual interruption of classes; that no boy should be allowed to be absent, except in case of sickness, or some domestic calamity; that no certificate, or apology should in any case be received for *tardiness*, but that whoever should come after the hour, should be deprived of his seat for that half day, and bring from his parent or guardian a satisfactory excuse for *absence*, before he could be again admitted to his place. This salutary regulation was adopted from a conviction that it is better for an individual to lose a half day's instruction, than that the school should be interrupted after the exercises have commenced These and other judicious regulations, together with the personal exertions and high-minded policy pursued by the school committee, gradually restored the confidence of the community to the school. In August of 1814, thirty boys were admitted. In the August following, fifty; and in 1816, sixty were admitted. As none were in the mean time deemed fit to enter College, the number had so increased as to render an additional room and assistant necessary. The reading school was therefore removed from the middle story of the school-house, and the room appropriated to the use of the Latin school, which had hitherto been confined to the upper floor As the number of scholars continued to increase yearly, additional instructers and additional rooms were provided as occasion required

It was found expedient likewise to appoint a sub-master, whose salary should be higher, and whose situation should be more permanent than that of the assistants.

The whole school-house in School-street, is now appropriated to this school. The last catalogue contains *two hundred and twenty five* scholars.

SCHOOL FUND FOR THE SEVERAL STATES.

[The measure recommended in the subjoined Report is one of vast national importance: its results will probably affect, in the most favorable manner, not the actual state of education merely, but the condition and character of our whole population. That a deep interest in this subject will be felt throughout the country we have no doubt; and we earnestly hope that the proposed Act will be unanimously and speedily passed. We have transferred to our pages the whole Report; as we think this course is due equally to the value of that document itself, to a full exhibition of the progress of the public mind with regard to education, and to the satisfaction of our readers, who we have no doubt are desirous of possessing all the information on such subjects which it is in our power to furnish.]

In the House of Representatives, February 24, 1826, Mr. Strong, from the Committee on the Public Lands, to which the subject had been referred, made the following

REPORT.

The Committee on the Public lands, to whom was referred the resolution of December 21st, 1825, instructing them 'to inquire into the expediency of appropriating a portion of the nett annual proceeds of the sales and entries of the public lands exclusively for the support of Common Schools, and of apportioning the same among the several States, in proportion to the representation of each in the House of Representatives,' report:

That the subject referred to the consideration of the committee is manifestly of great interest. It has directly in view the improvement of the minds and morals of the present generation, and of generations to come. It contemplates giving additional stability to the government, and drawing round the republic new and stronger

bonds of union. We are, indeed, a peculiar people. None enjoy more freedom than we do; and, though it be the price of blood, yet it is not founded in usurpation, nor sustained by the sword. The most casual observer of human institutions at once perceives that our political, as well as civil condition, in some essential particulars, differs fundamentally from that of every other nation. The constitution under which we live is the only one, beyond the limits of this republic, which secures religious toleration, and leaves the tongue and the conscience free. This was chiefly the result of education. Chastened liberty lives in the voluntary choice of an enlightened people, while arbitrary power depends for its existence upon the slavish fear of an ignorant multitude. Hence, a government like ours, which guaranties equal representation and taxation, trial by jury, the freedom of speech and of the press, of religious opinion and profession, not only depends for its energy and action, but for its very existence, upon the WILL of the PEOPLE. They, and they only, can alter, or change, or abolish it. And are the rights of mankind, and the obligations of civil society, generally understood or respected by the ignorant? Has property, or reputation, or life, when left to depend upon the wisdom of ignorance, or the forbearance of passion, ever been accounted safe? And where is the human character usually found the most degraded and debased? Is it where schools and the means of education abound, or is it where the light of knowledge never illumined the human intellect? If, then, the habits, notions, and actions of men, which naturally result from the ignorance of letters, from the force of superstition, and the blind impulses of passion, are utterly incompatible with rational liberty, and every way hostile to the political institutions of freedom, how high and imperious is the duty upon us, living under a government the freest of the free, a government whose action and being depend upon popular will, to seek every constitutional means to enlighten, and chasten, and purify that will? How shall we justify it to ourselves, and to the world, if we do not employ the means in our power in order to free it from the severe bondage of ignorance and passion, and place it under the mild control of wisdom and reason? As large as the opportunities of acquiring knowledge are, and as much of common learning as the American People have, there are some, growing into manhood around us, who have neither learning nor the opportunity of acquiring it.

The resolution under consideration proposes to appropriate a portion of the proceeds of the public lands to a new and specific object—to convert it into a permanent fund for the sole use and support of common schools in the several States, and to divide this

fund among the several States, in proportion to the representation of each in this House.

Of appropriating a portion of these proceeds to a new and specific object.—A part of the public domain was acquired by the fortune of war, and a part by purchase. The whole constitutes a common fund for the joint benefit of the States and the People. This domain amounted to some hundred millions of acres, and, of it, probably some two hundred millions of acres of good land yet remain unsold. It is true, that the proceeds of these lands, together with those of the internal duties, and the duties on merchandise and the tonnage of vessels, to the amount of ten millions of dollars annually, are appropriated and pledged to the 'Sinking Fund.' But, is this a valid objection to the appropriation of the whole or of any part of the proceeds of these lands to any other proper object? Since the act of March, 1817, making this appropriation and pledge to the sinking fund, the annual average amount of the public revenue has been about twenty millions of dollars. So long, therefore, as ten millions of dollars are left to the sinking fund, the appropriation is answered and the pledge redeemed; and the surplus revenue, from whatever source derived, not having been appropriated or pledged, remains to be disposed of in such way and for such purposes as the Congress may direct. But, are the public lands a source of revenue upon which a wise and prudent government ought to risk its credit? Will capitalists lend their money upon such vague and uncertain security? The land may be offered for sale, but no man can be compelled to buy. The purchase is wholly voluntary. The promised revenue to be derived from it is altogether contingent. It depends not at all upon the power or the necessities of the government, but upon the will of the purchaser Besides, the faith of the government does not consist in the intrinsic value of the thing pledged. This is not enough. No prudent man, for example, would lend his money to the government to be reimbursed out of the proceeds which may or may not accrue from the lead mines and salt springs belonging to the United States. The value of the pledge is the credit it secures. And the thing pledged is valued in proportion to its peculiar fitness and proper adaptedness to the end for which it was pledged. So that the faith of the government necessarily depends upon its ability to coerce the possession—to touch and turn the thing pledged into money. This the government cannot do with the public lands. They are indeed, tangible; but neither the wishes, the will, nor the power of the government, can change them into money. They are, therefore, not a proper source of revenue, upon which the faith or the credit of the nation should be hazarded. Congress seems to have considered them so. A township of land has been given to

the 'Nation's Guest.' Large portions of land have, from time to time, been given to other individuals, and to public institutions. Now, if it be good faith to give away the lands, from which the revenue pledged to the sinking fund is derived, it cannot be bad faith to appropriate a portion at least of their proceeds for the support of common schools.

Of converting it into a permanent fund for the sole use and support of common schools in the several States.—Unless children are taught how to govern themselves, and how to be governed, by law, they will rarely make good citizens. It may be objected that the Constitution does not give to Congress the power to appropriate the proceeds of these lands for the purposes of Education. The question is not whether Congress can superintend and control the private schools in the several States, but whether Congress can appropriate the proceeds of these lands for the use and support of those private schools, to be applied by and under the exclusive authority of the several States. The only clause in the Constitution, which, perhaps, can in any way restrain the general right of appropriating money, is that which declares that the Congress shall have power 'to lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises, to pay the debts, and provide for the common defence and general welfare of the United States.'

Can the proceeds of the public lands, in any sense, be considered a tax, duty, impost, or excise? A tax must be levied, and the obligation to pay it, created by the authority of law. The money derived from the public lands is not levied, nor is the obligation to pay it created by law. Both the purchase and the obligation are voluntary. The Constitution gives Congress the power of disposing of the territory and other property of the United States, but it no where considers the proceeds of these lands as a revenue to be applied as the proceeds of taxes are directed to be applied. The Military Academy at West Point is an invaluable institution. If Congress has the constitutional power (and we believe no one denies it) to establish such a school; to draw money directly from the public treasury for its support; to pay for teaching a boy mathematics and engineering; it may be difficult to show that Congress has not the power to employ a few acres of the public domain to teach a poor man's son how to read. But did any doubt remain, that doubt would appear to be removed, by referring to the facts, that a portion of these lands has, from the beginning, been set apart for the purposes of common education, and that other portions of them have been given, from time to time, for the use of colleges, and of deaf and dumb asylums, and for the construction of roads and canals.

Of apportioning this fund among the several States.—Equality of

rights and privileges, both as it regards citizens and States, is the fundamental principle of our Government. Hence, the People, so far as the integrity and independence of the States will permit, are equally represented in the popular branch of the National legislature. Guided by this rule the Committee have no doubt that the apportionment should be made among the several States according to the representation of each in the House of Representatives. This will distribute the fund, and dispense the blessings resulting from it, upon the strictest principles of equality. The ordinary disbursement of the public money does not directly benefit all alike. This apparently partial distribution of the money of the nation, depends upon the nature of the objects to which it is applied. An army is stationed where its services are required; a fortress erected where it is wanted; a navy constructed where it can be done the safest and the best; and the money to pay for objects of this sort, necessarily goes to those portions of the country only, in which the services and labour have been performed. These great objects, which enter so largely into the defence of the nation, are local in their character; and hence it is that some of the States, and many portions of the country, receive no direct benefit from the annual expenditure of millions of the public money. But the proposed appropriation for the support of common schools, is for an object general in its nature and benefits. It is an appropriation, in which every American citizen has a deep interest, and by the operation and influence of which, the ignorant and the wise, the rich and the poor, the government and the governed, will receive direct and lasting benefits. The ignorant and the poor will be aided and enlightened ; the wise and the rich estimated and protected ; and the Government appreciated and defended. Common schools are the nurseries of youth; they are the most universal, as they are the most effectual means of opening the mind ; of giving reason the mastery, and of fixing, in habits of sober industry, the rising generations of men. Can, then, a portion of the proceeds of the national domain, be expended in any way which will more directly or forcibly come home to the wants and wishes, the business and bosoms, of the People?

The resolution before the committee, does not indicate, in terms, whether the principal, annually apportioned, or the interest of the principal only, shall be paid over to the States. Nor does it point out any mode, in case the interest only is to be applied, of investing the principal. This part of the subject merits some examination. It seems to be manifest, that the more certain and permanent the fund, the greater and more lasting will be the benefits flowing from it. To apportion and pay the principal annually to the seve-

ral States, will be doing equal and exact justice. But the principal, in that case, would be annually expended. The consequence of this will be, that, as the public domain diminishes by sales, untill the whole is sold, the fountain whence the fund is to be drawn, will be gradually and finally exhausted, and the fund and its benefits, of necessity, diminish and cease together. As this domain is not exhaustless, if the principal, set apart for the use of these common schools, be annually expended, its benefits will be chiefly confined to our own time; but, by investing the principal, and dividing the interest only, the fund will accumulate, and its benefits may continue to future ages. The Committee, therefore, propose, that the sum annually appropriated, shall be invested by the United States, in some productive fund, the interest, or other proceeds of which shall be annually apportioned among the several States, according to the representation of each State in the House of Representatives of the United States. This sum may be invested in various ways. It may be invested in Bank, Canal, or United States stock, or a new stock may be created for the purpose, or portions of the redeemed stock of the United States may, from time to time, be set apart by the Commissioners of the Sinking Fund, uncancelled, and bearing the former, or a new rate of interest, to meet the object. The general investment of the principal by the United States, and the division of the interest in the manner proposed, seems to be the only way by which all the States and all the people can now and hereafter be equally benefitted. The annual appropriation should, and may, be so invested, as neither to affect, for the worse, the commercial relations of the country, nor to create artificial distinctions, or moneyed aristocracies. It should, and may, be so invested and applied, as to satisfy the moral and intellectual wants of all, while it will supply the pecuniary wants of none. Should the interest, by any particular mode of investing the principal, become an annual charge upon the United States, still, as the whole matter will, at all times, depend upon the wisdom and pleasure of the States and the People, no man, we believe, can reasonably doubt that they will release this charge the instant its burthens exceed its benefits. Hence, the evils of the measure, if there be any, will be rather negative than positive, and always under the control of the People, who alone are to be benefitted or injured by it.

In further discussing this measure, some of its obvious advantages must not be overlooked. It will give some aid to all, in the acquisition of learning. It will give efficient aid to the destitute, without which aid they must be left uneducated and in ignorance. It will diffuse, in the quickest and cheapest way, the

greatest amount of useful knowledge among the people. It will tend, as much as any thing else, to make young men and old, respectable, efficient, good citizens. These considerations, it would seem, cannot fail to awaken the attention of the State Legislatures. They surely are not now to learn, for the first time, that the success of good government, the independence of the States, and the permanency of their political institutions, are vitally connected with a well educated and sound yeomanry. Besides, the fact of there being a permanent fund, the interest of which is to be applied to the glorious purpose of training up the young mind in the way of knowledge and morals, will, in some degree at least, excite in these guardians of State rights, a just emulation in promoting, to every practicable end, the great cause of common education.

It is a singular fact in the history of our species, that, nowhere, has common education made any considerable progress among the people, without the efficient aid and protection of the Government. There is, generally, a prevailing indifference among the illiterate, to the cultivation of the mind; were it not so, the poor man, though learned, can rarely instruct his children, because his time is necessarily occupied in earning their bread; and the ignorant man though rich, cannot do it, because he is himself untaught. In other countries, multitudes of the human race successively live and die as illiterate as they were born; and, in our own favoured land, with all the liberal patronage, private and public, which learning receives, we are not wholly exempt from these lamentable examples. Under a government like ours, there should nowhere be left masses of mind, illiterate and humbled, over which, in an evil hour, some master spirit may exercise a fatal control. Ignorance is the bane of liberty. Ordinarily, conspiracies and treasons are executed by the ignorant. These instruments of unholy ambition, however, are not selected from schools where letters and morals are taught. Are not, then, the National and State Legislatures under the strongest obligations to the people of this country, to provide and apply the means whereby every child may have the opportunity, in these nurseries of the mind, of acquiring some knowledge of letters, and of the various duties he owes to his country and his God?

It will, moreover, bind, by an additional and stronger tie, the People to the States, and the States to the Union. There is something in this tie of mind, affection, and blood. It attaches itself to every father of a family, and to children's children. It successively connects with the present each succeeding generation. Common education can be estimated only in proportion as its necessities and advantages are felt; and as the same number of children, as there are dollars annually distributed from this fund,

may receive, with proper management, about six months' common schooling, will not the People, witnessing these moral and intellectual improvements, look with intenser interest to their respective State Legislatures, as the immediate dispensers of these benefits? And will not the Legislature of each State, viewing the increase of common schools, and the augmented amount of schooling, and perceiving their benign and salutary effects upon the mind, morals, and habits of the rising generation, look with increased steadiness to the Federal Head, whence these blessings flow? Common schools, of themselves, will not multiply, nor learning spread: means and opportunity must be afforded. By affording them, schools will multiply, learning spread, and ignorance, idleness, and vice, gradually give way to intelligence, industry, and virtue. Examples of these cheering results are not wanting. Let any man compare the calendar of profligacy and crimes among a given population where no schools have been kept, with that among an equal population where the means of common education have been abundant, and the great difference in favour of the latter cannot fail to convince him of the necessity of these initiatory institutions. The States and the People, perceiving these results, and learning from experience that the influence, respectability, and power, of a State, are in proportion to the intelligence and soundness of its citizens, will cherish the Federal hand that aids them, and cling with stronger affection to the Governments of their choice.

The Committee are not unaware that there is, in this pecuniary connection, a seeming tendency to produce an undue dependence of the States upon the Federal Government. They are persuaded, however, that a little examination will dissipate this cause of alarm. The strength of the tie, and the degree of the dependence, it is fair to presume, will always be in exact proportion to the actual benefits resulting from the proposed fund. If the fund be not beneficial, it can have no influence, good or bad. Suppose great benefits to flow from it, what are they? Shall we hereafter look for them in the increased ignorance and subdued spirits of our fellow citizens? or shall we find and feel them everywhere in the rapid progress of education, and in the improvement of mind and morals? If it be true, as it unquestionably is, that the safety and success of our political institutions depends absolutely upon the intelligence and virtue of the people ; and, if it be true, also, that the direct effect of the proposed fund will be to increase that intelligence and virtue, then it is equally true, that there can be no undue dependence of the people or the States, upon the Federal Government. As these benefits increase, so also will increase the ability and means of detecting and resisting the encroachments of power. Although

each part of our political system is dependent upon the other, yet there is a wide difference between that dependence which springs from mean or guilty motives, and that which has for its end the union and strength, the happiness and glory, of a generous people. And, whatever other men may be disposed to do, that portion of the People to whom our governments, whether federal or State, in prosperity or adversity, must look for protection and defence, if intelligent and virtuous, will never do slavish homage, or tamely surrender their liberties to an earthly power.

The proposed measure, the committee are also induced to believe, will have a most salutary effect in respect to the public domain itself, and all the great interests connected with it. There is much apathy in the public mind, in regard to the value and importance of these lands. Strong indications are manifested to reduce their price, and to bring the whole into market as speedily as practicable, and without any reference to the existing demand for them. Should this happen, the consequence will be, to depreciate the fair average value of land, whether cultivated or uncultivated, by putting more into the market than could be occupied perhaps in fifty or a hundred years to come; to fling the best of them into the hands of moneyed men and speculators, by their cheapness and the prospect of gain; and to retard cultivation and population by the high prices at which they would be held. The Committee think the proposed measure will produce a counteracting interest, an interest which, while it guards the public domain from sudden depreciation on the one hand, and from speculation on the other, will induce a more rapid and a sounder population.

There is another consideration connected with this subject which the Committee cannot pass over in silence. Our government was the first successful effort among men to establish rational liberty. Our fathers instituted and secured, upon the broadest principles of equality, representation, trial by jury, freedom of speech, freedom of the press, and religious toleration; and, to this hour, it stands a proud example to the world, unsurpassed, unequalled. The young and interesting republics of Spanish America have, perhaps, come as near to it as the condition and habits of their people would permit. Still there is this marked difference: they retain in some degree the old connection of church and state. They have an established religion. Now, if any one proposition in politics or morals be more susceptible of demonstration than another, it would seem to be this, that, where any religion is established by law, there neither the tongue nor the conscience can be free. As ours was the first, so it may be the last hope of civil liberty. No other considerable place remains on the globe where a second effort can be made under like auspices. The continents

and the islands of the sea, are mostly inhabited by men, born under governments, and brought up under the influence of principles and habits, with few exceptions, utterly hostile to our notions of freedom. Since this is so, our obligations do not end with ourselves. We owe much to the great cause of liberty. This debt we can discharge the best and the most honourably by securing well the foundation and superstructure of our own liberties; thus giving to the human family the influence of a perfect example of civil freedom. The foundation of our political institutions, it is well known, rests in the will of the People, and the safety of the whole superstructure, its temple and altar, daily and hourly depend upon the discreet exercise of this will. How then is this will to be corrected, chastened, subdued? By education—that education, the first rudiments of which can be acquired only in common schools. How are the millions of American citizens to be enabled to compare their government and institutions with those of other countries? to estimate the civil and political privileges and blessings they enjoy? and to decide understandingly, whether they ought or ought not to protect and defend the Constitutions under which they live?—By education. Has the Legislature of each State provided all the means that are wanted to this end? Is there nothing more to be done? Are all sufficiently educated? There are some wealthy men, and many a poor man, in our land, whose family and fireside have never yet been cheered by the light and benefits of common education. Is there then no necessity for the proposed measure? Its advantages must be admitted. That there are heads and hearts among us waiting for instruction, cultivation, improvement, will not be denied. And, that the means are still wanted, (through the inability or indifference of individuals and of the States,) to accomplish this great purpose, cannot be doubted. Why then delay? We are at peace with the world. Our burthens are light. We have money to meet all the engagements and exigencies of the Government, and some to spare.

But, if need be, push not so rapidly, nor so far, the costly defences of the country. The tooth of time will wear away the granite. Our strong fortresses and gallant ships will decay. But the young mind and heart, expanded, enlightened, and disciplined, in common schools, will grow brighter and sounder by age. Besides, our reliance under God for protection is upon the arm of flesh. The impassable rampart to our liberties and institutions must be composed of intelligent heads and sound hearts. Our panoply, in peace or war, must be the heaving bosoms and vigorous arms of enlightened and virtuous freemen. Shall we not then afford to all, especially to the ignorant, the poor, the destitute, the means at our command, the only means perhaps by which they can ever

acquire knowledge? Who are first to be benefitted? The children of farmers, mechanics, and manufacturers. Where do we look, and where must we look, for the moral and physical power of the nation? To the agricultural and mechanic interests—to the handicraftsmen of the land. Unsoundness here will be fatal. It is rottenness at the heart. Is knowledge power? Does our power, do our liberties, do all we hold dear, depend upon the WILL of our fellow men, whether that will be left to the guidance of enlightened reason, or of untempered ignorance? And shall we not provide the means we have at hand of teaching the ignorant and destitute to range themselves beneath the Eagle, and among the defenders of freedom? Or shall we neglect them altogether, and leave them to be schooled and disciplined by the Catilines and Cæsars of the day? Believing, therefore, that a portion of the proceeds of the public lands may be spared; that the diffusion of common education among the People is demanded by the highest considerations of national glory and safety, and that Congress possesses both the power and the right to appropriate them for this purpose, the Committee submit the following bill.

A bill creating a fund for the support of Common Schools in the several States.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That, on the first day of January, A. D. one thousand eight hundred and twenty-seven, and annually thereafter, there shall be, and hereby is, appropriated, fifty percentum of the nett proceeds of the moneys accruing from the sales and entries of the public lands, for the support, exclusively, of Common Schools in the several States.

SEC. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That the said fifty per centum of moneys aforesaid, shall be annually invested, by the United States, in some productive fund, the interest or other proceeds of which shall be annually apportioned among the several States, according to the established ratio of the representation of each State in the House of Representatives of the United States, at the time every such apportionment shall be made, to be applied to the sole use and benefit of common schools, in such manner as the Legislature of each State may, by law, direct.

SEC. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That this act, at any time, after ten years from the passing thereof, may be altered, modified, or repealed.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF MASSACHUSETTS.

[We present to our readers the following Act at full length; as it is not only a subject of present and uncommon interest to the community, but has a prospective aspect towards the improvement of education for the generations which shall succeed us.

This subject is one of peculiar importance to School-committees, throughout the State; and we shall feel gratified, if our pages can be rendered serviceable to the purposes of this Act, by aiding in a more extensive dissemination of its requisitions.

Our readers, we have no doubt, remember that, at the close of the Report of the Commissioners appointed by the Legislature to inquire into the expediency of establishing a practical seminary in Massachusetts, it is explicitly stated, that every rational endeavor to improve the condition of instruction, must be based upon a thorough investigation of the present state of the public schools in this commonwealth.]

AN ACT further to provide for the instruction of Youth, (passed March, 1826.)

SEC. 1. *Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives in General Court assembled, and by the authority of the same,* That each town in this Commonwealth, shall, at the annual March or April meeting, choose a School Committee, consisting of not less than five persons, who shall have the general charge and superintendence of all the public schools in said town; and it shall be the duty of said committee, to visit the schools in said town, which are kept through the year, at least once a quarter, for the purpose of making a careful examination of the same, and to see that the scholars are properly supplied with books: also, to inquire into the regulation and discipline of such schools, and the proficiency of the scholars therein; and it shall also be the duty of said committee, to visit each of the district schools in said town, for the purposes aforesaid, on some day during the first week of the commencement thereof, and also on some day during the last two weeks of the same;—and it shall, further, be the duty of one or more of said committee to visit all the schools in the town at least once a month, for the purposes afore mentioned, without giving previous notice thereof to the instructers. And it is hereby further made the duty of said committee, to require full and satisfactory evidence of the good character and qualifications of said instructers, conformably to the laws now in force relating to the subject; or to require them to furnish such other evidence of character and qualifications, as shall

be equally satisfactory to said committee; and no instructer shall be entitled to receive any compensation for his service, who shall teach any of the schools aforesaid, without first obtaining from said committee a certificate of his fitness to instruct.

Sec. 2. *Be it further enacted*, That the school committee of each town shall direct and determine the class-books to be used in the respective classes, in the public district and town schools of the town: and the scholars sent to such schools shall be supplied by their parents, masters, or guardians, with the books prescribed for their classes; and the school committee of each town shall procure, at the expense of the town, and to be paid for out of the town treasury, a sufficient supply of such class-books for the public district and town schools, and give notice of the place or places where such books may be obtained: and such books shall be supplied to scholars at such prices as merely to reimburse to the town the expense of procuring the same; and in case any scholars shall not have been furnished by his or her parent, master, or guardian, with the requisite books, every such scholar shall be supplied therewith by the school committee, at the expense of the town, and the school committee shall give notice, in writing, to the assessors of the town, of the names of the scholars so supplied by them with books, of the books so furnished, the prices of the same, and the names of the parents, masters, or guardians, who ought to have supplied the same; and said assessors shall add the amount of the books so supplied, to the next annual tax of the parents, masters, or guardians, who ought to have supplied the same: and the amount so added shall be levied, collected, and paid into the town treasury, in the same manner as the public taxes: *Provided, however*, That in case such assessors shall be of opinion that any of such parents, masters, or guardians, are not able, and cannot afford to pay the whole expense of the books so supplied on their accounts respectively, such parents, masters, or guardians, shall be exonerated from the payment of the whole or a part of such expense, and the said assessors shall omit to add the amount of such books, or shall add only a part thereof, to the annual tax of any such parent, master, or guardian, according to the proportion of such expense which such parent, master, or guardian, shall in their opinion, be able and can afford to pay.

Sec. 3. *Be it further enacted*, That all questions arising in any district respecting the removal or the changing of the site of the district school-house, and also, where any district shall be divided by any town, all questions arising respecting the division of the district property or funds, except the property or funds accruing from donations or voluntary grants, and also, all questions arising as to

the contribution or compensation to be made by the party retaining any of the estates or property of the district so divided, shall be determined in the same manner, and by the same proceedings, as are provided to determine the site of a district school-house, by an act passed on the twenty-eighth day of February, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred, in addition to the act to which this act is in addition.

Sec. 4. *Be it further enacted*, That this act shall be in force, on and after the first Monday of April next; and all provisions of former acts, inconsistent with the provisions of this act, are hereby repealed.

Sec. 5. *Be it further enacted*, That the school committee in the city of Boston, and in the several towns in this Commonwealth, be, and they hereby are, required to report to the Secretary of this Commonwealth, on the first day of June, of each year, for three years next ensuing, the amount of money paid in their respective city or towns, each preceding year, for the instruction of youth, designating, as far as is convenient or practicable, the amount paid for the instructers of public schools, the number of academies and private schools, the estimated amount of compensation for the instructers of academies and private schools, the number of school districts into which said city or town is divided, and the length of time in said year during which the several schools were kept in said town, the number of pupils, male and female; designating those of each sex under seven years of age, between seven and fourteen, and over fourteen; and also, what number of children, living in said city or towns respectively, over seven years of age, and under fourteen, do not attend school, and whether there are any, and what number of persons over fourteen years of age, and under twenty-one years of age, who have had a right to education in the public schools in this Commonwealth, who are unable to read or write;—and that they further report, what is the average annual expense for school-books for each pupil in the public schools of their said city or town, and whether there are any, and what number of children prevented from attending school by reason of such expense.

Sec. 6. *Be it further enacted*, That the Secretary of this Commonwealth furnish to each town and city in this Commonwealth a blank form of return in manner following.—

RETURN OF THE SCHOOL COMMITTEE OF CONCERNING SCHOOLS IN SAID TOWN.

NUMBER OF PUPILS IN THE TOWN SCHOOLS.

	Number of persons over 14 years, unable to read and write.
	Number of persons prevented by expense of school books.
	Number of children from 7 to 16, not attending school.
	Expense of school books for each pupil in Town Schools.
	Estimated amount of private tuition fees.
	Estimated number of pupils in private schools.
	Number of Academies and private Schools.
FEMALES.	From 14 and upwards.
	From 7 to 14.
	Under 7.
MALES.	From 14 and upwards.
	From 7 to 14.
	Under 7 years.
	Time of keeping school in the year.
	Number of public school districts.
	Amount paid for public instruction.

REVIEWS.

Medical Gymnastics; or Exercise applied to the Organs of Man, according to the laws of Physiology, of Hygiene, and Therapeutics. By Charles Londe, M. D. Facult. de Paris &c. &c. Paris, 1821: 8vo. pp. 351.

The importance of exercise and diet was perhaps never more fully acknowledged than by the physicians of the present day. Experience has proved these means to be the best preventive against disease, as well as a powerful auxiliary, if not a substitute for medicines, in many obstinate cases. One disorder in particular, which is very prevalent, has been found to yield to no other measures. Hence a regular system of exercise has lately been introduced—or rather revived—under the name of physical education. Several treatises have been written on this subject; and amongst those which are most worthy of note is that whose title stands at the head of this article.

M. Londe seems to have paid much attention to the subject of gymnastics, and particularly those of the ancients. The origin of these exercises, he tells us, is of the highest antiquity, being ascribed by the Greeks to Esculapius, who lived nearly 1400 years before the Christian era: some centuries later they were reduced to an art, and made a branch of medicinal science, by Iccus and Herodicus. Hippocrates, Galen, and Celsus, wrote on the subject, and have left invaluable precepts as to the application of exercise in health and disease. The ancient legislators, persuaded that the happiness of man consisted as much in the harmony of his physical, as in the developement of his intellectual faculties, made gymnastic exercises an essential part of education. From their time little attention was paid to the subject, till the 17th century, when an elaborate work, on the 'Gymnastic Art,' was published by Mercurialis in Italy. About the end of the last century, several elementary works appeared in England, France, and Germany; and shortly afterwards several schools of exercise, or Gymnasia, were established in Prussia, and other parts of the continent.

The work before us differs from most others on the subject, in being less elementary, and more scientific. It does not illustrate the particular games of the schools, but considers generally the utility of exercise in a medical point of view; showing under what circumstances it ought to be taken, and the effect produced on the animal economy by any series of movements. It is divided into

two parts. In the first part is considered the effect of exercise on the body, in health; in the second, its effect on it, in disease. The first part is subdivided into eight chapters; but a particular consideration of each of them, would exceed our present limits, a few extracts must therefore suffice as a specimen of the work.

After considering, in the first chapter, motion in general, and dividing exercise into three kinds,—active, passive, and mixed—he goes on, in the second chapter, to show the effect of active exercise on the animal and organic functions, and concludes with an examination of particular active exercises, such as walking, dancing, running, leaping, hunting, swimming &c, &c. Of each of these, as practised by the ancients particularly, he gives an interesting description. On dancing, after speaking of the origin, and the different modes of using the exercise, he remarks,

"Dancing, to be healthful, should not be practised, as we (the moderns) are in the habit of practising it, after eating or during the night. Particular attention also should be paid, as to the *place* where this exercise is taken. The ancients, more skilful than we in the art of living, and knowing how to make the pleasures of sense subservient to corporeal vigor, never transgressed in their gymnastic exercises the several laws of Hygiene. Their dances took place in the day-time, in the public squares, in certain parts of the theatre, or in their vast gymnasia. The dances of the moderns take place in the night-time, in places small compared to the number of dancers; where there is much dust and animal exhalation, which, being taken with the air into the respiratory organs, contribute with the slightest cause, with the least cold, to produce in these parts certain irritations; the more serious as young persons, especially females, through fear of being deprived of their favorite amusement, take great pains to conceal the commencement of these affections. This cause, the dust, joined to the suppression of transpiration, appears to me sufficiently powerful to produce phthisis, a disease which has cut off so many young female dancers; and which has been ascribed by some writers to the derangements produced in respiration, by this exercise."

Hunting, as an exercise, was much esteemed by the ancients. Rhazes, an Arabian author, states, that all the inhabitants of a country were destroyed by the plague, excepting hunters, who alone resisted the contagion. The first masters of the medical art, such as Chiron, Machaon, Podalyrus, Esculapius, were skilful and celebrated hunters.

Swimming, was held in such estimation by the Greeks and Romans, that a knowledge of it was considered as essential to education, as a knowledge of the alphabet. Hence their common ex-

pression when they wished to tax any one with gross ignorance, 'he is versed neither in literature nor in swimming.'

Exercise of the organ of voice he thinks useful, especially after eating. This was also the opinion of many of the earliest physicians. 'If any one is oppressed at stomach,' says Celsus, 'he ought to speak' (declaim.) And again, 'It is of service as a remedy for slow digestion to read aloud.' The immediate effect of this exercise is, 1st, to increase the action in the respiratory organs: 2d. to increase the motions of the diaphragm, which imparting slight shocks to the abdominal viscera accelerates their functions: 3d. to produce a greater secretion of saliva, a fluid so necessary in the process of digestion.

In the third chapter, he treats of the effect of *passive* exercises on the functions of the economy. Of this class are riding in a carriage, sailing, swinging, &c. He also shows to what cases this kind of exercise is particularly applicable. Thus digestion, which is often interrupted by active exercise, is rendered more prompt and easy. The powers of the system are concentrated on the stomach, and the peristaltic motion of this organ is increased by the gentle shocks it receives.

The fourth chapter treats of exercises of the mixed kind; the principal of which is riding on horseback. This exercise was highly recommended by the early physicians. Oribazius says, it is better than any other for giving strength to the body and stomach, but injurious to the lungs. As a prophylactic it has been universally allowed to be of great importance; and, in a therapeutic point of view, has been recommended in all chronic complaints, excepting those of a pulmonary nature. This exercise is peculiarly suited to literary men, as the position it requires expands the chest, and counteracts the effects of the stooping posture acquired in the study.

In the chapters which follow, M. Londe gives an account of modern gymnasia, and of the games or exercises practised in them. He points out the effect of each exercise on the physical system, and the effect of some of them on the intellectual faculties. In the application of exercise, he also shows what consideration must be had to the constitution, strength, habit, temperament, age, and sex of the individual. Thus children, he says, should not be *taught* to stand or walk, but should be placed on a carpet and allowed to move freely, according to their fancy. They will not be able to walk, or stand alone, so soon, by these means; but they will eventually, like the young savage, acquire greater agility, and a more general developement of the muscles. The bad shape of the legs of many individuals may be ascribed to their having been injudiciously, forced to stand alone, before the bones were suffi-

ciently strong to support the weight of the body. With regard to sex, many of the exercises of the male would be equally applicable to the female. In civilised life the natural difference in the appearance of the two sexes, is greatly increased by the difference in their physical education. The females of our cities, 'those frail, and delicate idols,' brought up in the bosom of luxury, are in an unnatural state. Compare them with the ancient Amazons of Tanais, or even the country women of France, and it will at once be seen how the same habits of exercise will produce a similarity of appearance. It being clear then that corporeal exercise is equally necessary to both sexes, "Can I indicate, says the author, that kind of exercise which is best suited to women? Shall I say that the passive, are the most appropriate to the female sex, because its weaker locomotive system is less adapted to the active? I cannot give such an opinion. Nor do I wish, with the extravagant laws of Lycurgus, to exact from the weaker sex those violent exercises, which giving, at once, a great developement to the muscles, destroy all that delicate contour formed by the expansion of the cellular tissue.* I am of opinion, that moderate motions are best suited to women; but think these motions should be selected, as for men, from amongst the active, passive, and mixed exercises; with reference, always, to constitution, temperament, &c."

The eighth and last chapter treats of the most important part of the subject,—the reciprocal influence of physical and mental exercises. The effect of violent muscular action, on the brain and its operations, is pointed out; as well as the effect of the exercise of this organ upon the rest of the economy, and on its own faculties.

With respect to the improvement of the mental faculties, however, we must observe; that M. Londe like many eminent physiologists supposes the mind to be a function of the brain; and that consequently, in proportion as this organ is developed by proper nourishment and exercise, in the same proportion will its functions, or the intellectual faculties be perfected.

The chapter and volume are concluded with some useful remarks on the kind of exercises best adapted to men of letters.

As a whole, we consider the work of M. Londe of great value; we have seldom seen one where the end,—that of being useful—was so fully attained. Were we to pass any censure on it, we should say, he sometimes indulges too much in theory, and fanciful description. In a practical work we want the result of experiment, rather than the deductions of reason. A statement of facts as to what *has*

* By the laws of Sparta the women were obliged to use the same exercises as the men.

been attained by physical education, would serve as the best proof of the efficacy of the system. The beneficial effect of exercise, however, is within the daily observation of every one: to reguluate it, and give it a proper direction is the object of physical education. Reasoning from the simple proposition, that an organ is developed in proportion as it is exercised, M. Londe proposes by a regular series of exercises, to unite the muscular activity of the savage, to the cultivated intellect of the civilised state: in other words, to impart to man, the greatest physical and mental energy of which his nature is susceptible.

We hope soon to see this work in an English dress. It should be in the hands of every one; particularly in this country, where so many are laboring under the effects of an impaired digestion. The subject is important to all, and within the comprehension of every capacity; and though some would abandon it to the physician, as proper for his care only, we shall always feel bound to neglect no opportunity of attracting to it the attention of parents and instructers, and of exhibiting it as among the most urgent departments of their duties, and the most important branches of education.

Books on familiar medicine, in the hands of ignorant, and injudicious parents, have sent too many to an early grave; and we should deem him a benefactor to society, who should be the means of substituting such works as that of Londe, for books which teach parents how to cure their sick children, rather than how to preserve their health.

Adam's Latin Grammar, with some Improvements, and the following Additions: Rules for the right Pronunciation of the Latin Language; a Metrical Key to the Odes of Horace; a List of Latin Authors, arranged according to the different Ages of Roman Literature; Tables showing the Value of the various Coins, Weights, and Measures, used among the Romans. By Benjamin A. Gould, Master of the Public Latin School of Boston. Boston, 1825: 12mo. pp. 284.

Dr. Adam's compilation of Latin Grammar is used, or expressly authorised, in seminaries of every order, in most parts of the United States: it has obtained, in fact, a wider currency, and a higher authority here, than in the country in which it originated. The latter circumstance, however, is owing not to any want of respect on the part of Dr. Adam's countrymen for his valuable labors, but to the difference in the prevailing method of instruction.

In Scotland, the oral statements and explanations of the teacher are—in every thing except mere inflection—commonly regarded as the principal means of communicating knowledge in this, as well as in other branches of education. Books, therefore, must hold but a secondary place. The instructer treats the manual which he employs as but a rallying point for his own statements, and for the ideas of his pupils. He entertains no impression that he has discharged his duty, when he has prescribed and heard the words which constitute a lesson in the book, or even when these have been recited and repeated in every possible form. The most important part of his office he considers to be his own exposition of the lesson, given in a manner as full, as minute, and as interesting as possible. In this exercise, every useful and entertaining illustration is introduced, which it is thought may serve to make the study of grammar practical and pleasing. All this is done in a sort of commentary, or paraphrase, on the book, but is made to embrace a copious discussion of the etymology or the syntax of the English, as well as the Latin Language, viewed in connection with the subject of general grammar, and every fact in history, geography, chronology, biography, mythology, or antiquities, which is connected with the substance of the lesson, its examples or illustrations. The year usually devoted in the Scottish preparatory schools to the study of Latin grammar, becomes, in fact, an initiatory course of Roman literature. This result, however, is not that at which the teacher aims. His endeavor is to relieve the tedium of application, and to win the attention, and secure the diligence, of his pupils by captivating their imagination. At the same time, nothing is neglected in the immediate subject of every lesson; no word is left unintelligible; every thing is viewed in its connections and dependences; and every effort is made by the instructer, which may facilitate or secure a correct and lasting impression of the ideas and the language of the book.—Many young minds are thus redeemed from heedlessness and inactivity, which otherwise would have been lost to learning and usefulness.*

This method of teaching, though vastly superior in many respects, is not without defects; and one of these is that it renders the instructer indifferent, comparatively, to what school-book he adopts.

* This method of instruction is not to be found in equal perfection in every school in Scotland. It is that, however, at which most intelligent instructers aim. It was beautifully exemplified by Mr. Alison, who taught for upwards of forty years, in the grammar school of Glasgow, and who numbered among his distinguished pupils, the author of the Pleasures of Hope; and by Dr. Chrystal, now rector of the same institution:—by none perhaps more admirably, than by that eminent grammarian and philologist, Dr. Young, late professor of Greek, in the university of the above city.

He lays his chief dependence on his own perfect knowledge of the subject, and the fascinating interest with which he can invest it, in presenting it to the minds of his scholars. He is apt, therefore, to allow his classes to use a book which is perhaps inferior to what might be easily obtained. We find, accordingly, in that country where one might naturally expect to learn that Adam's Grammar was exclusively used, the scanty and somewhat defective Rudiments of Mr. Ruddiman fully as much in use.

In this country, a better course is adopted with regard to school-books. Adam's Grammar has the exclusive sanction of the most reputable of our universities, and is consequently adopted in most good schools of preparatory instruction.

Impartial minds can entertain but little diversity of opinion respecting the general superiority of Adam's Latin Grammar, as a book adapted to school use. In certain particulars other books may excel. The masterly syntax of the Eton Grammar, brief as it is, and the excellent introductory books of exercises which are made to succeed it, give boys who are educated at that school a practical facility and accuracy which cannot perhaps be attained by the use of Adam. The German Latin Grammars are more laboriously accurate in some of the details both of etymology and syntax; and some of the Grammars recently published in England, are furnished with more copious exercises for the young learner. But when we look on such books as works which should convey the greatest quantity of sound instruction generally, rather than the profoundest research, or the nicest discrimination on particular topics, we can hardly hesitate in giving a preference to Adam's Grammar.

But to leave these general considerations, and attend particularly to the work before us:—Mr. Gould has, in this edition of the Grammar, rendered to classical instruction one of the most valuable services it has hitherto received in this country. To present, in any branch of education, the most accurate edition of a standard work, is no mean contribution to the cause of learning; and if the book which is revised requires a close and minute attention to the endless, irksome, minutiæ of orthography and accentuation,—in which to succeed perfectly is but a negative merit; but to fail, even in an iota, would be a grievous fault and a lasting hindrance,—the editor of this improved Grammar is peculiarly entitled to the gratitude both of teachers and pupils.

One of the prominent improvements introduced by Mr. Gould, is his omission of English grammar; which, as is remarked in his preface, although it may have possessed much value elsewhere, is of little use in a country where a distinct attention to that subject forms a part of education. The observations of Dr.

Adam on this collateral branch of instruction, were exceedingly valuable in his own country, at a time when the pernicious notion was too popular, that a knowledge of the grammar of the Latin language, enabled a pupil to dispense with any particular attention to that of his own. Dr. Adam's mind was not one which could be misled by any such idle impression. He saw the urgent necessity of attention to English grammar, and, as his best resource, in circumstances then existing, he wrought it up with the lessons which he gave in Latin grammar.—We wish that in no part of our own country the same impression which Dr. Adam endeavored to evade, were any longer in existence. Not to mention any of the numerous other considerations which enforce a grammatical study of the English language, there is one which no well-wisher to American literature can overlook. As the English is our native tongue, it is highly desirable that we should speak and write it in a manner as nearly as possible perfect. But an exclusive attention to Latin grammar leaves the pupil inattentive to the peculiarities of his own language, and therefore to a pure and idiomatic phraseology.*

We would not have detained our readers a single moment on this part of the present subject—which to many of them will seem to require no discussion—had it not been for our recollection of the chagrin often experienced on receiving the charge of a pupil, accompanied by a sagacious intimation from the parent, that to burden his son with the study of English grammar would be mere supererogation; for the knowledge of the Latin grammar would suit the purpose perfectly well!

Mr. Gould, in revising Adam's Grammar, with a view more immediately to the state of education in Boston, has judiciously left out whatever regarded English grammar merely; but instructers, we hope, will not on that account omit, on proper occasions, an oral comparison of every point in which there is a difference between Latin and English grammar. This exercise always serves to render the learner more familiar with his native idiom, as well as with that of the Latin.

Mr. Gould's endeavors to promote a uniform and correct pronunciation of Latin, are an important addition to the value of the Grammar. The rules in this department are, we hope, to be had separately from the book, so that they may be used as an introduction to it. The acquisition of a correct pronunciation should be an object of attention, as early as possible in the course of instruction. The application of the rules, therefore, should commence with the

* See the able remarks of Mr. Brougham on English idiom, in his inaugural address delivered in the University of Glasgow, on the occasion of his installation as Lord Rector of that institution.

advocates lay down in orthoepy. The exception, as far as pronunciation is concerned, is purely arbitrary; and, in this case, those who adopt it, abandon their own ground of analogy, and shift to that of expediency, which being of necessity a matter of private judgement and of taste, may be accommodated to the caprice of any individual.—The second manner of pronouncing would make *os* final in Latin, sound somewhat like *o* in the last syllable of the English word *operose*:—we adopt this illustration for want of a better. This pronunciation, although it is, in itself considered, arbitrary and unjustifiable, has been so prevalent in England, not to mention other countries, that, in the peculiar circumstances of the case—there being no final syllable precisely similar in English—it seems hardly worth while to erect a difference in the pronunciation of the two great nations which use the same vernacular tongue, and adopt to a great extent the same systems of education.

Whatever diversity of opinion may exist on the perfection of Walker's rules, there is none on the propriety of a correct and classical observance of accent and—as far as English orthoepy will allow—of prosodial quantity. On one circumstance, therefore, connected with the improved edition of Adam's Grammar, we congratulate every instructer. The care taken to accent penultimate syllables seems likely to succeed in banishing the hideous mispronunciations with which our school and college exercises were and are sometimes disgraced.

Other improvements introduced by Mr. Gould are thus mentioned in his preface.

'The article on gender, which was very incomplete in the original, has been written anew, and remarks on it which were scattered in different places have been brought together. The English has been added to the nouns and verbs used as paradigms. A greater variety of nouns of the third declension are declined as paradigms; and several defective, irregular, and compound words have also been declined. The list of defective nouns has been carefully revised and corrected. In declining the adjectives, all unnecessary repetition has been avoided, and an example in *ns* added. The table of numeral adjectives has been somewhat enlarged by the addition of the higher numerical letters. A few additional observations on the pronouns have been subjoined. A paradigm has been given, in each of the four conjugations, of a verb displayed in all its parts, and with the corresponding English annexed to all. An example of a verb in *io*, of the third conjugation, has been added to the paradigms. In giving the English, a little more precision has been attempted than is observed in the original; particularly in the *imperfect* and *future* of the indicative. A Synopsis of all the Modes and Tenses is subjoined to each Voice. The Formation of the

Tenses, it is hoped, will be found more intelligible and practically useful than before. Some slight alterations have been made in the subsequent matter, in order to render more prominent certain portions which were thought confused and indistinct. To the Prosody has been added a Metrical Key, or explanation of the various metres and combinations of metres used by Horace, with an Index (after the plan of Dr. Carey) to all the Odes. The remarks, which stood at the end, upon English Versification, with the Latin rules of Prosody, from Ruddiman, have been omitted as useless in that place. Instead of these are substituted a List of Latin Authors, arranged according to the golden, silver, and brazen ages of Roman literature; also Tables exhibiting the value of the Coins, Weights, and Measures, used by the Romans; and lastly, some Remarks on the method of computing Sesterces and on the grammatical solution of expressions relating to them, which are drawn from the best treatises on these difficult subjects, and may assist young students to gain a more exact knowledge of them, than is to be derived from any other book in common use.'

In Mr. Gould's closing remarks in his preface we cannot fully concur, that 'no abridgement or compend should ever be put into the hands of a scholar who is afterwards to use the original work.'

Every teacher is naturally apt to lay down as general and indisputable principles, the results of his own methods, or perhaps even of his views, of instruction. That this is the case in the present instance, we are inclined to believe. But the subject merits particular consideration.

If the position is taken as a general one, that no abridgement should be used as introductory to a fuller work, then the practice of many of the best public and private seminaries abroad—not to say at home—is erroneous; for, in not a few of these—we speak of England and Scotland more particularly; though the same usage prevails, we believe, in Germany and France—an introductory compend is always made use of with young learners. Not to insist on this point, however, one thing is evident, that even in the phraseology of Adam's Grammar, there is a vast deal of what to young boys is absolutely unintelligible. Now, in the schools of this country, where minute oral explanation is but little employed, beginners must encounter many unnecessary and obstinate difficulties, if the manual which they use is not adapted to their capacity.

There is much truth, we think, in the author's remarks on the force of first impressions. The supposed difficulty, however, seems unnecessarily magnified; and we do not speak in this case without the support of facts; for, in nearly ten years' practice in teaching pupils in both situations alluded to by Mr. Gould, we have found no trouble occasioned to any scholar who had been thoroughly trained

on an introductory compend. Indeed, we have always regarded a scholar as deficient who had not attained a perfect facility of mental reference to every part of the grammar, independently of its ocular place in the book. That the principle of association is strong in matters of this kind, we readily concede; but that it should be indulged to the degree mentioned by the author, we cannot bring ourselves to believe.

The facility of turning to any rule or observation desired, becomes an inconsiderable advantage, when we advert to the fact that every scholar ought to be so thoroughly master of the contents of his Grammar, that he never would need to turn to any part of it, for the purpose of making up the deficiencies of his memory. In good schools abroad, this perfect mental familiarity with the subject is constantly required;—so much so, that, after finishing the first course of Latin grammar, it is not unusual to demand of one scholar a perfectly accurate recitation of every word in the etymological part of the Grammar; of another, the syntactical; of a third, the prosodial; and, in former times, is was a customary reward of merit, for a scholar who had distinguished himself by diligence in study, and accuracy in recitation, to be permitted to recite before his class, in successive school-hours, every word of his introductory abridgement.

The last objection to the use of different Grammars, is that it occasions confusion in the mind of the learner. On the plan of oral instruction mentioned in the introductory paragraphs of this article, it is by some teachers thought a part of their duty to mention to their pupils, in a familiar and explanatory way, the different views which different grammarians have taken of the same point in a given lesson. At the same time, the teacher gives his reasons for adhering to his own views or to those of the book. All this is done in a simple, intelligible, and unaffected manner, which has no tendency to make boys hypercritics or pedants, but puts them in possession of a few sound reasons in favor of the method of instruction by which they have been taught. To pupils trained in this way no confusion can arise from the use of different grammars.—On the whole, however, we consider the last-mentioned objection as more weighty, in the existing state of our schools, than any other which our author has advanced.

Be these minor considerations as they may; we cannot take leave of this valuable school-book, without expressing our warmest approbation of it, and our gratitude for the facilities which its editor has afforded our youth for their progress in a language which is essential to a full understanding of their own; which is the avenue to professional life, and to the highest and most honored spheres of public usefulness.

INTELLIGENCE.

EDINBURGH UNIVERSITY.

THE following list of the course of studies, and of the names of the professors in the above institution, is taken from the University advertisement of September last:

Literature and Philosophy.

Latin, (junior and senior classes,)	Professor Pillans.
Greek, (first, second, and third classes,)	„ Dunbar.
Mathematics, (first, second, and third classes,)	„ Wallace.
Logic,	Rev. Dr. D. Ritchie.
Moral Philosophy,	Professor Wilson.
Natural Philosophy,	„ Leslie.
Rhetoric and Belles Lettres,	Rev. Dr. A. Brown.
Natural History,	Professor Jameson.
Agriculture,	Dr. Coventry.

Theology.

Divinity,	Rev. Dr. W. Ritchie.
Divinity and Church History,	„ Dr. Meiklejohn.
Hebrew and Chaldee Languages,	„ Dr. Brunton.

Law.

Civil Law: Pandects, Institutes,	Professor Irvine.
Scots Law,	„ Bell.
Public Law,	„ Hamilton.
Conveyancing,	„ Napier.

Medicine.

Dietetics, Materia Medica, and Pharmacy,	Dr. Duncan, junr.
Practice of Physic,	Dr. Home.
Chemistry and Chemical Pharmacy,	Dr. Hope.
Theory of Physic,	Dr. Duncan, sen. & Dr. Alison.
Anatomy and Pathology, Principles and Practice of Surgery,	Dr. Monro.
Theory and Practice of Midwifery,	Dr. Hamilton.
Clinical Medicine,	Dr. Graham & Dr. Alison.
Clinical Surgery,	Professor Russell.
Military Surgery.	Dr. Ballingall.

Lectures of the Summer Session.

Botany,	Dr. Graham.
Clinical Lectures on Medicine,	Dr. Home.
Clinical Lectures on Surgery,	Professor Russell.
Medical Jurisprudence,	Dr. Christison.

EDINBURGH ASYLUM FOR THE BLIND.

Yesterday week being the anniversary of the foundation of this excellent charity, the pupils, male and female, were examined in the Great Basket Room of the Asylum, in Nicolson street, in presence of several of the directors, and a crowded assemblage of the friends of the institution, of whom the great majority were ladies.

The directors not anticipating such a meeting, had not made arrangements for raising the seats, so that only those who were placed near the top of the room, had the good fortune to witness the exhibition, which commenced at twelve o'clock, and concluded about three.

The pupils were examined in their knowledge of the scriptures, in spelling, grammar, writing, reading, arithmetic, geography, and astronomy; in almost all of which they displayed a woderful proficiency. One of the male pupils, J. Mc. L. who has been in the institution from its commencement in the year 1793, displayed an extraordinary memory, in repeating large portions of the New Testament, with most of which he seemed intimately acquainted, and could repeat almost every part of it upon the book, chapter, and verse being mentioned, and quoted the chapter and verse of whatever passage was repeated to him.

The examination commenced by recitations of various passages of the scriptures, which were in general delivered with good emphasis and accurate pronunciation.

Several of the pupils showed great dexterity in writing with what they call the string alphabet, which consists of making particular knots representing the letters of the alphabet, on small pieces of twine. One of the pupils, wrote in this manner the words 'Fear God and honor the king' in three and a half minutes. In a competition for the prize of 5s. in this class, the 121st psalm had been given, and the specimen which obtained the prize, was declared by the teacher to be both beautifully written, and without a single error in spelling.

In the geography class, several of the pupils displayed great knowledge of the science, particularly a young female, who, upon a large globe constructed for the use of the blind, pointed out any country, island, city, river, lake, or sea, which was requested of her, with the greatest facility, and calculated the latitudes and longitudes of various places with the utmost accuracy. Four of the male pupils were also examined in this class, who all showed considerable acquaintance with the subject; but the latter was declared to be the most proficient. The pupils were examined in this branch by one of their own number, David M'Beath, who is the inventor of the string alphabet. The first lessons in geography which have been given in the establishment, were within the present year; and the teacher of the boys, himself blind, did not receive a lesson till the first week in January. Mr Richardson had been employed to teach both the male and female classes, but soon found M'Beath so apt a scholar, as in the space of a few weeks to entrust him with the whole superintendence of the boys' class.

A beautiful and ingenious map of the solar system, contrived by the secretary, Mr Johnston, was displayed, on which M'Beath showed great dexterity, considering that he had only one previous lesson.

The object of the directors seems to be, to employ the blind in such studies as will enable them to exercise their powers of thinking in a useful and rational manner; and with this view they have been taught to use the mode of writing above described, which seems, from what was produced at the meeting, abundantly easy of acquirement.

There are constantly at work at the asylum about 26 looms. Four weeks ago, a mark was made on the respective webs, and a prize of a sovereign offered to the person who should produce the most cloth, well woven. P. B, who has been long blind, but who, while he enjoyed vision, had been bred a weaver, produced 125 yards of striped Holland, and J. K, a blind boy of 14 years, taught in the asylum, produced 125 yards, and they were of course pronounced the successful competitors; but to the latter much more credit appears due, from his extreme youth, and utter ignorance of the art till he entered the institution.

The whole was concluded with an impressive prayer by the Rev. Dr. Gordon, and two pieces of sacred music, which were executed by the blind, and had an imposing effect.

The work done by the girls, as well as various articles made by the men and boys, were exhibited to the company after the examination.

Upon the whole, this was a most interesting exhibition; and the anxiety shown by the public to witness it on this occasion, will, we have no doubt, cause the directors, before the next annual examination, to make such arrangements as will enable all present to be fully gratified. *Caledonian Mercury.*

LAW SCHOOL AT NORTHAMPTON.

The law school at Northampton, Massachusetts, has been established for several years, and has enjoyed a very liberal patronage; but until very lately there has been published no particular statement of the course of study pursued at that institution. The public seem to have been too well satisfied of the ability and learning of Messrs. Mills and Howe, its principals, to demand of them any very strict account of their mode of instruction. Within a few weeks, however, these gentlemen have published a sort of prospectus, detailing what seems to us a very excellent and judicious plan of study. As the school is rapidly rising into notice and favor, and as the whole community is interested that those who profess the complicated and difficult science of law, should be sound and ripe scholars in their way, we have been induced to say something of this plan, and the advantages with which we suppose it to be attended.

Lectures of an hour are delivered at this institution three times a week. These lectures are intended to embrace most of the important titles of the law, and to treat in a particular manner of those in which the greatest alterations have been made in our own country, and those which have been less fully discussed by elementary writers. An extensive and valuable law library is open at all times to the pupil; and he is directed in his reading by the particular advice of the principals; regard being always had, in the selection of books, to his capacity and attainments, to the progress he has made in the studies of his profession, and to the time he expects to devote to them. Recitations from these books take place three times a week. This is, perhaps, the most important feature in the plan of instruction pursued at this school. Not only are recitations exceedingly important, as helps to the memory, but they give an opportunity for the removal of mistakes and misapprehensions, and for the explication of those abstruse doctrines, and nice distinctions, which abound in our law, and which are not always apprehended with the same readiness and clearness as self evident propositions. The common law of this country is principally learned from English books—from elementary works compiled with great industry, and in many instances, digested with great skill, and from the reports of decisions in English courts of law. These works, besides that they give no information of the changes which we have made in the English law, contain much which it is not important that the pupil should particularly study and remember. So many alterations have been made in the common law by the statutes of this country; so many in some of the states have crept in from mere custom; so much of it has grown obsolete by lapse of time, and so much is inapplicable to our peculiar condition, or incompatible with our institutions, that an able and learned guide is indispensable to the student in his researches. He who should undertake to prepare himself for the pursuit of this profession, by the aid of books alone, without observation of the practice in our courts, or inquiry of experienced lawyers, besides having wasted a great deal of time in unnecessary labors, would find himself, on his entrance into the profession, in a pitiable state of uncertainty and embarrassment.

In addition to these recitations, and to the conversations to which they give rise, upon the subject of their studies, great pains are taken by the principals, one of whom is a judge in one of the Massachusetts courts, and the other an advocate in extensive practice, to state to their pupils the cases which occur on the circuits,

the questions raised, and arguments urged on the trial, and the way in which these are finally settled. This part of the instruction is also of no small importance, as it gives the pupil a certain acquaintance with the ordinary details of practice, and in some sort supplies the want of experience. This familiar way of reporting cotemporary litigations and decisions, interests the mind far more strongly, and leaves a much deeper impression, than the reading of printed reports. Among the multitude of things which we remember, how many are there, whose only hold upon our recollections is, that they happened in our own time, and our own neighborhood.

According to the plan laid down in the prospectus, a discussion of some legal question by the students, takes place every week. Readiness in applying the principles of law, skill, self possession, and fluency in debate, are qualities of great importance to the legal profession. They are as much so to the youngest as to the oldest of its members; and yet they are things of habit, the fruit of frequent exercise. It is as unreasonable to expect them of him who has had no opportunity to improve his natural powers by practice, as it is to expect of a child that he will go alone at the moment of his birth. There is no reason why these acquisitions should not be made a part of a legal education. A good general is not satisfied with merely providing keen and bright weapons for his recruits; he will not push them into battle till they have become dexterous in their use.

In short, the school of Messrs. Howe and Mills, combines every advantage which can arise from a term of study in the office of a counsellor, with all those of an academic institution. The fine village in which it is situated, the beauty of the surrounding country, and the agreeable manners and cultivated minds of the inhabitants, are of themselves strong recommendations in its favor; and we learn that the principals are about to place it in a still more classic atmosphere, by removing it to a retired part of the town, in the immediate vicinity of the celebrated school of Messrs. Cogswell and Bancroft. *N. E. Obs.*

GYMNASTIC EXERCISES.

We are happy to understand that a gymnasium has been instituted at Cambridge, under the superintendence of a gentleman from Germany. The result, thus far, is very satisfactory both to the instructers and the students.

In Boston, a meeting has been held, and a committee appointed to take the proper measures for establishing a gymnasium.

LECTURES ON THE CIVIL LAW.

A course of lectures on the Civil Law is commenced at the Atheneum, by Dr. Charles Follen who has lectured on that subject, in several of the German Universities.

IMPORTANCE OF EDUCATION.

There are, it is calculated, in the United States, about 3,000,000 children, and all these children are in the common course of things to become the future actors in the affairs of this nation.

EASTON COLLEGE, PENNSYLVANIA.

A bill has passed the Legislature for the establishment of a college in the borough of Easton, Northampton county. The object of this institution is, 'the education of youth in the various branches of science and literature, the useful arts, military science, tactics, and engineering, and the learned and foreign lan-

guages,' to be called '*La Fayette College.*' There is to be forever maintained in this college a professorship of the German language; and as soon as it shall be organised and ready for the reception of pupils, the adjutant general of this commonwealth is required to deliver to the Corporation 100 muskets and bayonets with belts, bayonet scabbards, and cartouch boxes, complete.'

INDIAN SCHOOLS.

The government pays 13,500 dollars annually, for the support of schools, &c. at 38 stations among various tribes of Indians. Of the schools, 16 were established by the American Board of Foreign missions, 7 by the Baptists, 6 by the United Foreign Missionary Society, 2 by the Moravians, &c. The society of Jesuits have a catholic school among the Indians of Missouri, which receives eight hundred dollars annually. The number of teachers, (including their families,) at all the schools, is 281; number of scholars, 1159.

MECHANICS' INSTITUTIONS IN ENGLAND.

There were in England in the beginning of December, eighty-five or ninety mechanics' institutes, or similar establishments connected with libraries. The celebrated geometrician and astronomer, La Place, had written a letter to the president of the London mechanics' institute, in which he commended them highly.

MECHANICS' INSTITUTIONS IN FRANCE.

Mechanics' institutions are forming in Paris, under the direction of Baron Charles Dupin, and in other cities of France, by some learned professors.

COMMON SCHOOLS IN NORTH CAROLINA.

The Legislature of North Carolina, at its present session, has passed a law which provides a fund for the establishment of Common Schools throughout that state.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN PENNSYLVANIA.

According to the eighth annual report of the Controllers of the Public Schools of the first School District of Pennsylvania, the number of pupils belonging to the Schools of mutual instruction is 3507. viz:—

In the	*Boys.*	*Girls.*	*Totals.*
Model School,	342	240	582
Lombard Street,	262	229	491
Northern Liberties,	300	297	597
Kensington,	176	171	347
Southwark,	339	268	607
Moyamensing,	203	208	411
Spring Garden,	87	52	139
Mary street, (coloured.)	185	148	333
Gaskill, street (coloured.)			
	1894	1618	3507

Exclusive of the alphabet and spelling departments, and writers on slates, there are among these children 1728 in the reading, 899 in the paper writing, and 1474 in the arithmetic classes:—in the latter branch some have advanced to vulgar fractions, and in several schools grammar and geography have been successfully taught. Knitting and other useful needlework forms part of the instruction of the girls, and at one of the schools the platting of straw has recently been beneficially introduced.

At the common schools in the country parts of the district, there are 640 pupils, which added to those taught on the Lancasterian plan, gives an aggregate of four thousand one hundred and forty-four children, who, in the official year now terminated, have freely received the benefits of education.

The Controllers have drawn orders upon the County Treasurer for $22,442 71: of which sum $11,531 82, is chargeable to the support of the Lancasterian schools —$ 4,856 99, to real estate and school furniture, principally for the completion of the new building in the second section—and $6053 90, to education in the country sections.

PROPOSED INSTITUTION IN MASSACHUSETTS.

The report of the commissioners on the above subject has, by a vote of the House, been returned for further consideration.

INSTRUCTION IN PERU.

We observe among recent measures, which are much in the spirit of Bolivar's general policy, a decree of the council of government, establishing a college for the education of the Indians. The colleges of Liberty and St. Charles are to be united under the name of the Convictorio of Bolivar, for the support of which $400 a month are to be paid, $300 of which are to be appropriated for the support and instruction of Indian youths; and in the college of Independencia $200 are devoted to the same purpose. Another decree orders the re establishment of the public lectures in Spanish, Latin and rhetoric, for the public instruction of youth.

YALE COLLEGE.

From the catalogue of the Officers and Students of Yale College, for the year 1825-6, just published, it appears, that there are now in that institution 23 Theological Students, 16 Law Students, 75 Medical Students, and 354 Undergraduates. Of the latter 159 are from Connecticut; 57 from Massachusetts; 56 from New-York; 13 from Pennsylvania; 11 from Ohio; 10 from Maryland; 9 from South-Carolina; 5 from New-Hampshire; 4 from North-Carolina; 4 from New-Jersey; 4 from Mississippi; 3 from Virginia; 3 from Georgia; 3 from Louisiana; 3 from Alabama; 2 from Rhode-Island; 1 from Vermont; 1 from Delaware; 2 from the District of Columbia; 2 from the West-Indies; 1 from Lower Canada; and 1 from Greece.

PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN MARYLAND.

To day Mr. Teakle's bill to establish primary schools in the State of Maryland, came up for discussion and was passed.

USEFUL SUGGESTIONS.

The regents of the University of New-York, in a late report of their committee, have recommended the establishment of a school of Agriculture, Mechanics, and the useful Arts to be connected with each college in that state, to instruct the manufacturer, the mechanic, journeyman, apprentice, and laborer, in the principles upon which successful practice, in their several occupations depends. They recommend courses of popular lectures upon Agriculture, Chemistry, and Mechanics.

NOTICES.

WORKS IN THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.

The Biblical Reader; or Interesting Extracts from the Sacred Scriptures, with Practical Observations, and Questions for the Examination of Scholars. For the use of Schools generally, and Sunday Schools in particular: also well calculated for Individuals and Families. By the Rev. J. L. Blake, A. M. Rector of St. Matthew's Church, and Principal of a Literary Seminary, Boston, Mass. with Cuts. Boston, 1826: 12 mo. pp. 472.

The object of this excellent volume is to 'furnish schools with such selections from the sacred volume as appeared peculiarly interesting and instructive to the rising generation.' The book is arranged in chapters, each embracing a distinct portion of the scriptures, and forming a lesson of moderate length. Questions intended to secure the pupil's attention, and impress the subject on his memory, are annexed to every chapter; and a few practical observations are subjoined, as a proper conclusion of the lesson.

The plan of this work is, we think, one which cannot fail to render it eminently useful

In two minor points, also, it seems well adapted for schools. The arrangement of numbered verses is dispensed with; and the pages present the form of regular paragraphs, dependent on the connection and the sense. More attention is thus attracted to the meaning, and the exercise of reading is greatly facilitated.

We quote from the preface the following valuable directions for the use of this work; as the exercise suggested would certainly be entitled to a place among valuable improvements in instruction. 'At the appointed hour for beginning the school, and before any studies or recitations are introduced, let one of the scholars read aloud, distinctly and reverently, one of the chapters: while one is thus reading let all be in profound silence; and to insure the attention of the whole school to what is read, each one should be liable to be called on to answer the few questions which follow the chapter.'—'When the reading is finished, and the questions are answered, the instructer should read, impressively, the practical observations which succeed.'

As we believe that the Biblical Reader will be extensively used in families and schools, we would suggest to the author the following additions: a few questions on the practical observations which follow each chapter, and some geographical and historical illustrations from Burder, Harris, and other suitable authors, so as to render every lesson still more interesting and instructive.

An Address delivered May 23d, 1820, to the Teachers of the South Parish Sunday School, Portsmouth, by the Rev. Nathan Parker. 18 mo. pp. 18.

This little pamphlet abounds in valuable practical suggestions, which may be advantageously adopted by instructers generally, as well as by that class for whose use it was more immediately intended.

Useful Tables of Scripture Names, Scripture Geography, Scripture Chronology, and Scripture References; including valuable Harmo-

nies of the Scriptures, by the Rev. G. Townsend, and S. F. Jarvis, D. D. prepared to accompany the Reference Bible, By Hervey Wilbur, A. M. Boston, 1826: 18mo. pp. 86.

This useful manual presents, first, the proper names of scripture accented for pronunciation, according to Walker's Key and Rules: second, an etymological [illegible] such names as are thought of any importance for elucidating texts, either in the Old Testament or the New: third, a general view of sacred geography, (by Mr J. E. Worcester.) In the last mentioned department, after a few general introductory observations, the learner is furnished with a geographical vocabulary of scripture names, arranged after the manner usually adopted in gazetteers, and containing much information within a small compass.—Then follows a chronological [illegible] of the Old Testament, in 'a syllabus of Townsend's recent work on the basis of Lightfoot's chronicle.' The plan of a simple and ingenious harmony of the four gospels is the next important article in the Tables. A concordance, and a table of references, conclude the volume.

From the analysis which is here given of the contents of this work, our readers will perceive that the aim of the compiler is to form intelligent readers of the sacred volume.

We would take the liberty of suggesting to the proprietor of this useful manual, to the author of the Pronouncing Bible, and the author of the Biblical Reader, that by a disinterested and cordial co-operation in the production of one school-book, combining the merits of their respective works, they would greatly facilitate the [illegible] instruction, and perform a service which would entitle them to the perpetual gratitude of the American community.

A Spelling Book containing Exercises in Orthography, Pronunciation, and Reading. By William Belles. New London, 1825: 12mo. pp. 156.

Mr. Belles' spelling-book contains Walker's notation of orthoepy, applied to columns of words arranged somewhat on the plan of Mr. Webster. The reading lessons are judiciously composed or selected; being intelligible and pleasing in their style. The vocabulary will be found a very useful part of the book. The definitions of the words are, in most instances, very happily given: they are, in fact, what they ought to be in every book of this kind, explanatory, rather than logical: they give the signification of the words—a thing much more useful to children than the most exact and faultless definition.

Cornelius Nepos de Vitâ Excellentium Imperatorum. From the third Edition of J. H. Bremi. With English Notes. Boston, 1826: 12 mo. pp 174.

It was with peculiar satisfaction that we heard of this school-book being in the press. There is no classical writer better suited for an introduction to Cesar; and none perhaps, in the whole range of Latin reading, more acceptable or more useful to the young. The cultivation of an early acquaintance with ancient history, and of a taste for a simple, correct, and chaste style of composition, should be going on along with every branch of study, and more especially with every stage of classical education. We are glad therefore to receive this excellent school-book from a source so well entitled to public confidence as the school at Northampton.

In several years' use of Cornelius Nepos, our only dissatisfaction has arisen from the numerous inaccuracies and false readings of the common school copies of this work, many of the English and Scotch editions being, if possible, more faulty than the American. The Regent's Classics, it is true, furnish a beautiful copy, and a carefully revised text; but the book which is thus offered is too rare among us, and too costly for school use.

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Useful Tables of Scripture Names, Scripture Geography, Scripture Chronology, and Scripture References; including valuable Harmo-

TO CORRESPONDENTS.

Printed or manuscript accounts of the following institutions have been received, and shall be inserted in our subsequent numbers.

Maine Wesleyan Seminary.
Erasmus Hall, L. I.
Geneva College, N. Y.
Chesterfield Academy, N. H.
Hartwick Seminary, N. Y.
Westfield Academy, Mass.
Dickinson College, Pa.
Noyes' School, N. H.
Derby Academy, Mass.
Hopkins' School, Mass.
Haverhill Academy, N. H.
Harvard University.
Yale College.
Gardiner Lyceum, Me.
Public Schools of New-York.
Agricultural School, of Dummer Academy, Me.
Baltimore College.
Cumberland College, Tenn.
Female Seminary, Wethersfield, Conn.

We would acknowledge the receipt of several valuable communications, for which we shall endeavor to make room as early as possible: among these are the following:

Moravian education,
Systems of penmanship,
Pestalozzian instruction,
Parish Schools of Scotland,
Strictures on a Review in this Journal, [Zeto.]
Education of females, [H.]
Methods of instruction. [M. K.]

Our acknowledgements are due to an anonymous friend who has forwarded us a packet of very interesting pamphlets, which we have no doubt will be very serviceable to our purposes.

The Report and the Act contained in our present number have excluded Mr. N. Webster's letter to the public, and reviews of Alger's Pronouncing Bible and of Jamieson's Rhetoric. The review of Greek Grammars shall appear in our next number.

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ACCOUNT OF THE SYSTEM OF INFANT SCHOOLS.

(Concluded from p. 200.)

Arrangement of an Infant School.

The school room. In an establishment where circumstance and the personal influence of the teacher, as well as mutual example, fill so important a place among the means of attaining the purpose which is in view, the choice of a suitable room is of very principal moment.

On this subject, some general principles may be laid down, which will distinguish those things which are absolutely necessary to the real efficiency of the system, from those which are only desirable.

In the choice of a room, then, it will have sufficiently appeared, that cheerfulness, light, freedom of air and of dimension, must always be consulted. The walls should, if possible, be spacious, and the roof or ceiling lofty.

The size of the room must be regulated by the number of the children who are to be educated in it. There should be space for the whole of the school, with the exception of the monitors, to sit around the room on seats affixed to the walls, that the area may be perfectly free.

The average of one foot to a child is sufficient.

As one of the principal objects in these establishments is to gain and fix the attention of the school on one spot, and on one person, the form of the room should, if possible, be such as to cause the infants the least personal trouble and effort in doing so.

It is desirable, farther, that the voice of the teacher should be equally heard, without effort on his part, and that his person should be seen with equal distinctness, at all the most distant points

in the room. If he be obliged to raise his voice, in order to be heard by those who are at a greater distance than others, his tone will almost necessarily seem to approach to that of anger; and the good feelings of his little flock will in consequence be disturbed; whilst, on the other hand, distance will encourage carelessness in those whose attention is not yet sufficiently secured.

It will appear, from these remarks, that one decided aim in the choice and the fitting up of an infants' school-room must be to place the little pupils, as far as may be possible, at an equal distance from the point from which the teacher may propose generally to address them.

Number of children.—In the establishment of an infants' school, one of the first things which must occupy our attention is the number of children which may with effect be educated together. Now in the discussion of this point, as that of the subjects of infant instruction, possibility is, I would remark, by no means a sufficient guide to our decision. It may be possible, for instance, under the most favorable circumstances, and for a certain time, to catch the attention, and to instruct together as many as three hundred infants; but the influence over so many cannot be lasting; and when disorder is once effectually introduced, it will take some considerable time to remove it. The system may indeed be destroyed by either extreme. Where moral influence, proceeding almost directly from the best and the kindest feelings of the heart, is the only source of authority, and where mutual sympathy is one powerful instrument in the hand of the superintendent, it is manifest that the number may be either so great that both will be lost—the voice of the teacher be merged in the discordant shout of the infant multitude, or the company itself divided into its little parties, and thus the influence of mutual sympathy cease to be universal; or, on the other hand, it may be so small, that the desire to excel will subside into personality, or the influence of evil temper and of disorder become universal, before the superintendent is able to subdue it by the better feelings which may remain.

Where circumstances are favorable, three schools, of one hundred children each, are far to be preferred to one of three hundred. The number should not be less than from fifty to eighty, and it should on no occasion exceed one hundred and fifty. In an assembly so circumscribed, if the form of the room be suitable, the superintendent may, from his rostrum, watch the eye of any individual. He may address himself to any one, or he may avail himself of the ear of all, without elevation of voice, without anger, and with the best effect.

Age of the children.—Children are admitted into the infants' schools from the age of two years, to that at which they are received

into the parochial schools; which is generally six or seven. The presence of the older children, if the establishment be well managed, is productive of very beneficial consequences. The mutual influence of the infants on each other may, through these, be rendered more extensively effectual, and as they will have attained to a greater measure of knowledge than the others, and will have imbibed more correct habits of order and attention, the best monitors may generally be selected from amongst them.

Separation of the boys and girls.—After the assembling of the school, the first division that takes place must be that of the boys and the girls, whom it will be well to arrange at the opposite sides of the rooms. It may, indeed, seem useless to insist on this division among children so young as those at an infants' school; nor am I prepared to say that there is an absolute and present necessity for it. The principle, however, is accordant with the system. In such an establishment, regard must be paid to the *appearance* and the *tendency* of things, as well as to their present nature; and the arrangement which I have thus recommended will, amongst others, encourage a delicacy of mind and propriety of manners, which the children will probably never totally forget.

Classes.—The division of the school into classes must be a work of consideration and care, and will require much time for its completion.

It will be more than probable, that among a hundred children of different ages under seven years, a few will be found who have already, by the diligence of their parents, acquired a knowledge of the letters of the alphabet, and of some of the more simple words. Now, as soon as possible, the teacher must accurately acquaint himself with the state of knowledge already attained by each of his pupils; and without any distinct remark to this purpose, he must place those who have acquirements, of howsoever small an extent, in a higher place in the school than those who have none. By thus slowly proceeding in his work, in a few days the little assembly will have almost imperceptibly assumed a more correct arrangement, and he will have thus laid the foundation of all his future proceedings. From this point, he may, without hesitation, proceed to a general division of the whole school into classes.

It has been already remarked, that if it be difficult for the teacher to support a consistent influence over the whole of his school, it would be impossible that a child should ever hope to do so over any considerable number of his fellow-pupils. In that part, then, of the system, where instruction proceeds immediately from the monitors to their fellow-pupils, order can alone be preserved by placing the fewest possible number under the care of each little teacher. A monitor is supposed to be able to regulate, and to communicate in-

struction to *five* of his fellow-pupils, and this is, therefore, the number of each class. For the general purposes, however, of the school, it is thought better to have two monitors superintending the same little party of children; and on this account two subordinate classes are regarded as one, and the monitor of the school is then called the second monitor. In the classes themselves, it is not desirable to place the children according to their several acquirements, as the instruction there pursued is seldom individual; and the personal emulation, which is excited by the taking of places, is not known in this system of education. In order to mark the division of the classes, the seats may be divided by small partitions, into compartments of ten feet each, which affords, on the average, sufficient room for as many children.

Monitors.—In an infants' school, a child, who has attained knowledge howsoever limited, is supposed to be thus far in a capacity to teach another child who has none. On this principle the several monitors are chosen. All that is required in the way of qualification in the monitor of a class is, that he should be well acquainted with that which it is his office to communicate to his little pupils. It will be evident, that in this manner all the school may be reduced to an order of successive instruction, and that the business of the teacher, will be, in this department, most effectually performed by his personal attention, chiefly to the highest classes. Through these, as monitors, he communicates the same knowledge to the second order of his pupils, and thus by succession to every class in the school. His personal attention to the subordinate classes will be of a more general character. He will call, and fix their attention, as he passes round the room, to the various subjects of instruction; and support, where necessary, the influence of the little teachers over those intrusted to their care. As the monitors are, in their order, themselves moreover the subjects of instruction, and under such circumstances must for the time leave their classes, the most intelligent child in each class is chosen, to fill, at these times, the place of the little instructer, and obtains the name of the *sub-monitor*.

When the lesson is to be given to the whole school at once from the rostrum, the monitors are chosen from among the boys without any regard to their place in their several classes. The more simple combinations of number, for instance, or the more easy tables, are recited aloud from that place by some of the least advanced in knowledge. The teacher is here constantly changed, and all feel that in their turn they may assume the place of instructer to all the others.

Besides these monitors, two or more of the most intelligent and active children may be selected, to act each alternately as a *walk-*

ing monitor. The duty of this monitor is to walk slowly from one end of the school to the other, observing the attention of the scholars; himself at the same time reciting aloud the lesson, if the instruction be general, or exciting the various classes to diligence. He preserves order, under the direction of the superintendent, and informs him of any delinquency which he may perceive in any part of the little assembly.

It will form a very important part of the duty of the superintendent, to watch over the dispositions of the monitors; as there will be constantly a danger of their assuming an authority over their fellow-pupils, which is beneficial neither to themselves nor to the general order of the school. He must be keenly alive to any harshness of address which they may use. He must not suffer them to exercise any mode of punishment; but he must himself be always ready to enforce that measure of attention to the lesson which may be necessary.

Order of instruction.—The next thing which will require the attention of the superintendent of an infants' school, after the division of the classes, will be the arrangement of the order of instruction. He must first, then, have clearly stated before him the subjects which it is proposed to teach in the school. These he must divide into the following parts; those which may be taught to the whole school at once from the rostrum—those which may be communicated by mutual instruction in the several classes—and those which are suitable to the higher classes alone, and must be confined to the class-room.

It has been presumed, in an earlier part of this treatise, that the mind of an infant cannot be exercised with cheerfulness on any one subject, except under extraordinary circumstances, for a longer space of time than *about a quarter of an hour.* The teacher must carefully meet this tendency to weariness, by dividing the lessons themselves into so small parts, that they may be severally completed rather within that period. Novelty, another desirable object in fixing the attention of infants, may be thus consulted; as the lessons may be so arranged as to recur not more than twice or three times in the week, and then at different periods of the day. After the division of the lessons, the teacher may next proceed to form his *scheme of instruction.* He may, in his scheme, divide the school-hours of the week into their quarters; and having thus before him the division of the time of the week, he may allot to each quarter its lesson, and arrange the whole in the manner which he conceives to be most suitable to the ends he has in view. The first and last quarter of each day, I will not hesitate to presume, will in every infants' school be appropriated to the use of a *suitable prayer*, and the singing of some simple hymn.

ARTIFICIAL AIDS TO THE PRESERVATION OF ORDER.—It may usefully call into exercise the ingenuity of the teacher, to discover means of conveying by signs his wishes at once to the whole school. The following, amongst others, have been tried with success.

The division of the lessons into portions adapted to periods of one quarter of an hour, will suggest the necessity of having, if possible, a *clock* in the school-room. It will not add very considerably to this expense, if, instead of striking the hours, the clock be made *to strike once, loudly, every quarter.* When the superintendent perceives the hand approaching the quarter he may place himself in the rostrum, and immediately on the stroke, give out, with a slow and distinct voice, what must be the lesson of the next quarter.

He must have some sign also which the children may all understand, for their terminating their lessons, and returning quietly to their places. This may be the use of a *little bell*, which he may carry in his pocket. But let him bear in mind, that he may both display and excite ungoverned passion by the hasty and noisy manner of ringing his bell, as well as by the angry tones of his voice.

He will farther find it necessary to have some means of directing the modulation of the voices of the children whilst repeating their lessons. A small and shrill *whistle* will answer this purpose, if he impress it, as he may effectually, on the mind of the little multitude that, whenever he uses it, they are to say their lessons in a whisper.

The following general considerations on the subject of the preceding section may perhaps be worthy of the attention of the superintendent of an infants' school.

In such an establishment, order is not the result of a law, but of an influence. It is a habit, and not the subjection of the will to reason or to necessity. It will be obvious, then, that however desirable it may be to arrange a school in exact order at the first opening of the institution, much time must be necessarily expended, and much patience quietly employed, before this object can be effectually attained. It will be necessary not to attempt too many points at once; but to begin with the more easy, and to proceed by degrees, to the more exact regulations of the system. If we attempt every thing at once, we may preclude ourselves from doing any thing effectually; but if we are content with small attainments at first, our final success will exceed our utmost expectations.

It must farther be remarked, that the difficulty attending the arrangement of an infant school is almost entirely confined to its first establishment; when the object is to reduce into order a whole assembly of untaught children at once. After this has been once effected, it will be preserved with very little attention and labor on the part of the teacher. The new comers will then, in the course

of things, be introduced by one or two at a time, and will fall into the established order without any effort, and almost insensibly to themselves.

It will be advisable, farther, not to press those lately introduced into the school into immediate occupation. They may be generally suffered, at first, to place and to employ themselves as they please. A little observation on the part of the master will lead to a discovery of their proportionate attainments and the place which they are to hold; and when they have become somewhat familiar with the habits of the institution, they will fill whatever station may be assigned to them with cheerfulness and regularity.

THE TEACHER.—With regard to the teacher of an infants' school, it will be unnecessary that I should detain the reader by any lengthened discussion, as enough has been implied in every part of the preceding treatise. The teacher must be capable of doing all which has been supposed to be required of him, and his efforts must be guided, not by a desire of gain, by which they would probably be much circumscribed, but by an original pleasure in the company of children, and a capability of accommodating himself to their feelings and their tendencies.

NUMBER OF TEACHERS IN A SCHOOL.—In order to the perfection of the system, it will not be possible to conduct an infant school without the constant aid of two persons; the attention of one of whom may be directed especially to the order and the general education of the school, and of the other to the communication of knowledge in the class-room. The necessity of two teachers appears in the fact, that amongst infants of so tender an age, it is not possible, as amongst other children, to have secured the habit of order, independently of the inspection of the master. The uninterrupted presence of one teacher must, therefore, necessarily constitute a part of the general arrangement.

QUALIFICATIONS OF A TEACHER.—A superintendent of an infants' school should, in few words, *be himself the model of that in which it is proposed that he should educate the little assembly under his care.*

Religion.—The first qualification of such an individual, it will hence follow, must be *the purest excellence of moral character*, and the *sincere influence of a vital and reasonable religion*, which has part in every disposition, and enters into every action of his life. It will not be a sufficient excuse, if the false principle which he may hold, or the evil habit to which he may be liable, be not yet directly cognisable by the children. The former will not fail to throw a morbid influence over the course of his instruction, and the latter will be hidden only by the arts of a hypocrite;—arts which not only qualify, but pervert and destroy the real character of religion, and are of too flimsy a texture to hide their degraded principle from the eye of even an infant. It would be better, for the present, to defer

all appeals to the religious principles and feelings of a child, than to place before him that which is calculated to generate disgust; or to give the idea, that religion consists principally in form and outward show, and has little to do with our secret actions and with our heart.

Intellectual acquirements.—It is not necessary, that the intellectual acquirements of a teacher of an infants' school should include more than he may have learned at some of the best conducted of our parochial establishments. More importance is to be attached to the *mode* of his knowledge than to *its extent*. He should have learned well that with which he professes to be acquainted; and should have the faculty of accurate discrimination, and of tracing the subjects of knowledge to their first and easiest principles.

Of the moral qualities, *self-control* is one of the most requisite. Irritability and quickness of action must soon produce an evil effect upon the little assembly; who will gradually lose their respect for a teacher, if he be frequently under its influence, and, eventually imbibing his spirit, refuse to submit to his authority. He should be *kind* and *gentle*, and yet consistently *firm* and *energetic* in his manner. His address should be always that of *cheerfulness*, and he should, at proper times, be capable of relaxing without effort into *playfulness*. And, above all, whatever he may think right to do, must be accompanied, both with a manifest good-will, and with a real as well as a professed conviction of duty. *He must show the children, that he proceeds always in submission and in obedience to the will of God, beyond which he knows of no appeal.*

It is not to be expected, indeed, that in the infancy of this system, persons should offer themselves altogether prepared to undertake the guidance of an infant school. It will generally happen, that the proposed teacher must be himself instructed and formed for his work. And if he be under the influence of true religion, and therefore of an excellent moral character; if he be possessed of a strong natural intellect, and kind affections; and if he have received that measure of education which is given in our parochial schools, there is little reason to doubt, that with care, attention, and perseverance, he will soon be capable of performing with propriety, the duties which may be incumbent upon him.

Nor is it by any means necessary to believe, that none of the good effects, which attend these institutions, can be secured to infants of so early an age, without attempting an approach to the perfection of the system which has been described. Much has, in some places, been done by the adoption of parts of the plans which have been proposed. In this manner, where infants' schools cannot be established, those conducted by dames, which exist in almost every village in the kingdom, may, in many instances, be much improved.

PUBLIC LATIN SCHOOL IN BOSTON.

[The following extracts from the Prize Book, comprehend the terms of education, the classification of the scholars, the method of teaching, the books which are adopted in instructing, and other subjects connected with the management of this school; all of which, it is thought, will be equally useful and interesting to such of our readers as have not perused the Prize Book itself.]

The scholars are distributed into six separate apartments, under the care of the same number of instructers; viz. a Principal, or head master, a sub-master, and four assistants. For admission, boys must be at least nine years old; able to read correctly and with fluency, and to write running hand; they must know all the stops, marks, and abbreviations, and have sufficient knowledge of English Grammar to parse common sentences in prose. The time of admission is the Friday and Saturday next preceding the Commencement at Cambridge, which two days are devoted to the examination of candidates. The regular course of instruction lasts five years; and the school is divided into five classes, according to the time of entrance.

When a class has entered, the boys commence the Latin Grammar all together, under the eye of the principal; where they continue untill he has become in some degree acquainted with their individual characters and capacities. As they change their places at each recitation, those boys will naturally rise to the upper part of the class, who are most industrious, or who learn with the greatest facility. After a time a division of from twelve to fifteen boys is taken off from the upper end of the class; after a few days more, another division is in like manner taken off; and so on, till the whole class is separated into divisions of equal number; it having been found that from twelve to fifteen is the most convenient number *to drill* together.

In this way boys of like capacities are put together, and the evil of having some unable to learn the lesson which others get in half the time allowed, is in some measure obviated. The class, thus arranged for the year, is distributed among the assistant teachers, a division to each. This is preferred to keeping them together; for they are in the room with two divisions of higher classes, there being always three divisions in each apartment; and by the example of older boys they more readily correct their childish foibles, and fall in with the habits of the school. And further, as writing is not

taught in the school, the younger classes for the first two or three years are dismissed at eleven o'clock, an hour before school is done, that they may attend a writing school. It is necessary therefore, that one division of a class that stays till twelve should be in each room, to afford the instructer employment from eleven to twelve o'clock. This, therefore, is an hour of uninterrupted instruction *to a single division* in each room, after the other two have been dismissed.

When this distribution is made, the boys continue for the year in the apartment in which they are first placed, unless some particular reason should exist for changing them; or when the higher divisions attend the sub-master, for instruction in Geography and Mathematics, to whom these departments are committed.

This method of studying each branch separately, is adopted throughout the school. The same individuals do not study Latin one part of the day and Greek the other, but each for a month at a time; and so with mathematics, except that the lesson for the evening, which is usually a written exercise, or a portion of Latin or Greek to be committed to memory, is in a different department from the studies of the day. In this way, the aid of excitement from the continuity of a subject, is secured; and a much more complete view of the whole obtained, than when studied in detached portions; and the grammar of neither language is permitted to go out of mind. For it should "be remembered, that if the grammar be the first book put into the learner's hands, it should also be the last to leave them."

At the close of every month, the boys in each apartment undergo a rigid examination in all the studies of that month. This is conducted by the principal, with whom only the first class remain permanently, in the presence of their particular teacher, and such other instructers of the school as find it convenient to attend. These monthly examinations are sometimes attended by the sub-committee of the school, and are open for parents, and any other persons interested. If any class, or any individuals do not pass satisfactory examination, they are put back, and made to go over the portion of studies in which they are deficient, till they do pass a satisfactory examination. The rank of each scholar and his seat for the succeeding month are determined by this examination; unless an account of places for each recitation of the month has been kept, in which case they are determined by a general average. The boy at the head of the first division of the first class is monitor for the month. The monitor writes in his bill a list of all the classes, in the order in which they are now arranged; and notes, each half day, such as are absent. The absences of each individual for a month, or a year, may be known by reference to this bill.

Boys commence with Adam's Latin Grammar, in learning which they are required to commit to memory much that they do not understand at the time, as an exercise of memory, and to accustom them to labor. There are some objections to this, it is true, but it has been found extremely difficult to make boys commit thoroughly to memory at a subsequent period, what they have been allowed to pass over in first learning the grammar. It takes from six to eight months for a boy to commit to memory all that is required in Adam's Grammar; but those who do master the grammar completely, seldom find any difficulty afterwards in committing to memory whatever may be required of them.

The learned Vicesimus Knox thinks it may be well to relieve boys a little while studying grammar, "for," says he, "after they have studied Latin Grammar *a year closely*, they are apt to become weary."

The examples under the rules of syntax are the first exercises in parsing. The Liber Primus is the first book after the grammar. No more of this is given for a lesson than can be parsed thoroughly. This and the grammar form the studies of the first year. To these succeed Græcæ Historiæ Epitome, Viri Romæ, Phædri Fabulæ, from Burman's text, with English notes; Cornelius Nepos; Ovid's Metamorphoses, by Willymotte; with particular attention to scanning and the rules of prosody. Portions of Ovid are committed to memory in the evening that were translated in the day, and verses selected from them for *capping*, which is a favorite exercise with boys. Valpy's Chronology of Ancient and English History, Dana's Latin Tutor, for writing Latin, and Tooke's Pantheon, with the books already mentioned, comprise the studies of the second year. The Greek Grammar is now commenced, if it has not been before, Cæsar's Commentaries and Electa ex Ovidio et Tibullo. Then follows the Delectus Sententiarum Græcarum, a most excellent little book for the commencement of Greek analysis. And here particular care is taken that no word be passed over till *all the changes* of which it is susceptible be gone through, and the rule given for each. Much depends on the manner in which boys are introduced to a new study. They like what they can understand. Hence it not unfrequently happens, that lads properly initiated into Greek, soon prefer it to Latin and every other study. The Coll. Gr. Minora follows next, with Sallust and Virgil; and these, with the writing of translations in English, from Latin and Greek, form the studies of the third year. The exercises in the Latin Tutor continue till the book is entirely written through once or twice. Much time and labor are saved in correcting these exercises. The head boy gives his exercise to the teacher, and takes that of the next below him, who in his turn receives his next neighbor's, and

so on, through the class. The boy at the bottom reads the English, a sentence at a time; and the teacher reads the same in Latin, from the exercise in his hand, marking with a pencil such words as are wrong. Where the sentence admits of variety, each form is given. The boys in the mean time mark all words differing from what is read, by placing the figures 1, 2, 3, &c. under them. When the exercise has all been read, and each boy has marked the errors of his next neighbor, the one who has fewest takes the head, and so on. This exercise is returned to be corrected, and has a second reading with the next new exercise. Thus in fifteen minutes the task of an hour and a half is performed. The attention in the mean while is effectually secured by the interest each boy has in noticing the mistakes of his neighbor, and the liability of having all marked to *his own account*, which shall appear on second reading not to have been noticed in the first. But this method, of course, can be adopted only so long as the Latin words are given in the exercise book. When the Latin Tutor can be coverted into correct Latin, Valpy's Elegantiæ Latinæ succeeds it. This book is a very valuable auxiliary in teaching to write Latin, and an important addition to our school books. It consists of a free translation of select portions of the most approved Latin authors, with many judicious and critical remarks on the rules of construction, and the use of words, with a key, separate from the book, to be kept by the instructer, where the original passages may be seen by the learner, and compared with his own Latin. When boys can write Latin prose grammatically, they are required to make *nonsense verses*, or to put words into verses with regard to their *quantity* only. When the mechanical structure of different kinds of versification is familiar, they have given them a literal translation, of a few verses at a time, taken from some author with whose style they are not acquainted, which is to be turned into verses of the same kind as those from which it was taken, and then compared with the original. Bradley's Prosody is used for this exercise. Afterwards portions of English poetry are given, to be translated into Latin verse. Original verses are then required, which, with themes in Latin and English, continue through the course. Considerable portions of all the Latin and Greek poets used in school are committed to memory, as they are read: particularly several books of Virgil; all the first book of Horace, and parts of many others; the third and tenth Satires of Juvenal entire; all the poetry in the Græca Minora; and many hundreds of verses in Homer. This is an important exercise to boys; and without it they can never write Latin prose or verse with the same facility as with it. It is in this way that the idioms of any language are gained; and in writing verses the quantity and proper use of most words employed

by the best writers are instantaneously determined, by recalling a verse in which it occurs. Cicero's select orations, De Officiis, De Senectute, De Amicitia, Horace Exp., Juvenal and Persius Expur. Greek Primitives, Xenophon's Anabasis, Maittaire's Homer, Greek Testament, Wyttenbach's Greek Historians, together with the aforenamed exercises, and Geography, Arithmetic, Geometry, Trigonometry and its uses, Algebra, &c. form the studies of the two last years.

The study of arithmetic is commenced the latter part of the third year or the beginning of the fourth, with Colburn's "First Lessons." Recitations in this are made two or three times each half day, by those who are studying it. The boys are not expected to commit to memory the answers to the several questions, but to find them repeatedly before the recitation, that their answers may then be given with more facility; and in order that the operations, by which they solve the questions, may be strictly intellectual, numbers are often announced by the instructer different from those in the book, and only the *form* of the questions is adhered to. After the question is announced, a sufficient time is allowed for each individual of the class to find the answer; and then one is called upon; the question is passed through the class, whether the answer be given right, or not; and all, whose solutions are right, go above those, whose are wrong. After all the questions in a section have been understood, and solved, each boy is called upon to state the general method of their solution, or the rule for working them. This rule, thus made by the boys, not given them, when corrected as to phraseology by the teacher, is written in a manuscript book, and committed to memory. The same system of advancing from particular examples to the general rule, is observed in teaching Lacroix's Arithmetic and Euler's Algebra; synthesis being considered preferable to analysis, in these studies. The class, with their slates, come to the recitation forms; a question is proposed, which each is required to solve; others, more and more difficult of solution, depending on the same principles, are announced; each boy on finding his answer passes his slate to the one above him; and thus no one can correct his solution on the authority of a better scholar. All, whose sums are right, take precedence of the others. After the solution of numerous questions proposed in as many different forms as possible, they are furnished with the rule, and required to commit it to memory. The black board is also used, to show the method of arranging their work, with the greatest economy of space and labor.

In geometry the diagrams of Euclid are taken off, first on paper, with *figures* instead of letters, that nothing may be committed to memory without being understood. When they have been demon-

strated from the paper, they are afterwards drawn by the pupil on the black board, with figures; when the proposition is demonstrated without a book, or any aid to the memory, whatever. Worcester's Geography is the text book in that branch; and here constant and particular use is made of the maps. The boys are required to find upon it the rise and course of every river, the situation of each town, etc. in their lesson; and beside getting the text of the book, to answer any question which may arise upon the map of the country whose geography they are studying.

Beside the books already mentioned, use is made of the following, viz. Neilson's Greek exercises for writing Greek, Schrevelius' Greek Lexicon, Hedericus, Scapula, Morell's Thesaurus, Walker's Classical Key, Lempriere's Classical Dictionary, Adam's Roman Antiquities, Entick's and Ainsworth's Latin Dictionary, &c.

On Saturdays the whole school comes together in the hall for declamation. The four upper classes speak in turn, a class on each Saturday. The youngest class attends this exercise, but does not take part in it. After a boy has spoken, and the presiding instructer has made such observations as he sees fit, any individual of the class that is speaking, has a right to correct any errors in pronunciation, or any violation of the text, that may not have been pointed out; and if none of the class does this before another boy is called out, it may be done by any boy in the school. This leads to much attention to the subject of pronunciation; and great acuteness is often discovered by very young boys. This is the only day in the week in which all the instructers and scholars unite in any religious or literary exercise.

On these occasions, boys are promoted from a lower to a higher division, or a higher class, who have distinguished themselves, by maintaining their place for a given time at the head of the division in which they recite. In this way, a scholar sometimes gains one or two years in the five of the regular course. Cards of distinction, to such as deserve them, are also given out once a month, in presence of the whole school.

ADDRESS DELIVERED ON THE OPENING OF THE NEW-YORK HIGH-SCHOOL FOR FEMALES, JAN. 1826.

[The following address was delivered by the Hon. John T. Irving, president of the society by which the above school is established. The address has, by order of the board of trustees, been published in the form of a pamphlet. But, as few perhaps of our readers have opportunity to peruse it, and as its subject

is peculiarly important, in the present state of the public mind with regard to education, we have postponed other valuable matter to make room for its insertion.

It is our intention to devote, if possible, a portion of each of our future numbers to the subject of the education of females; and we would take this opportunity of expressing our obligations to the distinguished individual who has favored us with an introductory article on her views and plans of instruction. The article alluded to will appear in our next; and our correspondent will, we hope, favor us with more of the particular results of her own experience in teaching; as we conceive they would form a body of valuable details, which would aid the efforts of teachers and superintendents of schools and other institutions for the instruction of females.]

A YEAR has nearly elapsed since this Society established a Seminary for male children, similar to that we contemplate opening in this building for the education of female children. That Seminary has answered the expectation of the Board of Trustees; and in their late report to a meeting of this Society, they have expressed themselves thus far entirely satisfied with the experiment which they had made.

We have, in truth, had many difficulties to encounter, and such as were to be expected in the opening of an Institution of this nature. The Principals, though eminent as teachers, and distinguished for their literary attainments, were not practically acquainted with the monitorial method of instruction, and had to acquire a proficiency in it by the experience of teaching. The pupils were new to their teachers, and were unaccustomed to this novel method of acquiring knowledge: monitors were to be instructed before they could be made the means of imparting instruction to others: some time, therefore, was consumed in these preparatory acquirements, before the institution could be considered as having been fairly got under way. Yet, with all these disadvantages, it has flourished equal to the sanguine hopes of those who were active in its establishment; and it promises to be a powerful auxiliary to those plans of education, which at present engage the attention of intelligent individuals, and of the public functionaries of the state. Thus encouraged, we have felt desirous that the usefulness of this Society should be enlarged, and that our daughters, as well as our sons, should participate in the benefits to be derived from our association.

It is not my intention, in the few remarks which I shall make to you at the present time, to dwell on the advantages of the monitorial system of instruction: this I had the honor of doing at the opening of the Institution to which this is an auxiliary; and indeed, the great utility of this system appears at present to be understood and admitted, if we may judge, from the number of seminaries which

have of late years been established in various parts of this state, and in which this system of instruction has been adopted.

I will only ask your indulgence, while I dwell for a few moments upon the great individual and public advantages, which will be derived from an attention to female education.

And here I am aware, that I have a powerful advocate in the bosom of every parent, and I would say, especially in the bosom of every father. I would ask each of those, which, of all the anxieties that beset his heart, clings to it with a firmer hold than that for the welfare of his female offspring? Our sons we can educate and launch into the world as we ourselves have been launched into it; and although we must feel great solicitude for their success, yet, both from nature, from habit, and from education, they are able to buffet with the stream, and to put back or overcome the difficulties with which they may be surrounded.

But what shall become of those tender plants which Providence has intrusted to our care and nourishment? What difficulties may they have to encounter? Who will stand up for them in the hour of necessity? How will they be enabled to struggle with those hardships, and meet those vicissitudes which they may experience in their progress through life? These are reflections which must continually occur to the parental mind, and in some measure cast a shade of sadness over those hopes with which a parent always brightens the future prospects of his children.

The affection which a father feels for his male offspring, is of a strong and lasting nature; but to his female offspring, who, like tender vines have entwined themselves around him, depending upon him alike for protection and support, while for them he feels the same abiding attachment, he is yet drawn towards them by sympathies of a tenderer nature. They come recommended to him by their attachment to their home, by their fond reliance upon him, and by all those sensibilities which constitutionally belong to their nature: the hold they take upon his affections is deep and powerful, it continues with him through every period and vicissitude of their lives.

And yet, with all these feelings of solicitude and affection, is it not extraordinary that so little attention has been hitherto paid to female education? We take all pains with the instruction of our sons, from a belief that a thorough education is absolutely necessary to their success in life; that their faculties must be sharpened to enable them to bear those jostlings and collisions which they must expect to encounter in the world—but as to females, it is generally presumed, from their retired and domestic habits, and from the sphere in which Providence has designed them to move, that superior intellectual endowments will not be requisite to their welfare and prosperity.

Yet, how often has this opinion been proved to be fallacious! How frequently has experience shown, that many who ought to have found protectors in those with whom their fortunes had been joined, have had themselves to bear the heat and burden of the day; and that on their feeble and unassisted efforts the sustenance of a whole family has had entirely to depend! How often again, have we beheld the same distressing results where disease or misfortune had sapped the strength of him who was ever ready to perform the offices of duty and affection!

Experience therefore, would teach us, that it is the part of wisdom, to prepare and strengthen the female mind to sustain and bear up against those trials.

But, although our daughters may not experience those melancholy changes of fortune, it is equally important for the purposes of their domestic happiness and their domestic usefulness, that their minds should be improved by a judicious education. Minds intelligent and well improved, generally obtain and secure the affections of minds equally informed and intelligent. They are drawn together by a similarity of taste and studies, and by a respect for the talents and mental acquirements of each other. It is true, that nothing may at first more powerfully attract the beholder than the graces of person which so peculiarly belong to woman, but it is the excellences of the mind, which must ripen into affection the impression thus made by what is admirable in the exterior. Even where the graces of person have been denied, where nothing at first sight was promising or attractive, this intelligence has appeared to irradiate the form in which it dwelt, and to secure for it the attachment of some congenial mind, established also upon a basis the most durable—a respect for the object of its affection.

In the after domestic relations of husband and wife, the advantages resulting from a good practical education will be equally manifest.

Thus endowed, the wife becomes in every sense of the word the companion of her husband; she enlivens his prosperity; she is his solace in misfortune and his adviser in difficulty. In the sad reverses of fortune which may befall him, he reposes on her bosom, unchanging towards him, and whose kindness increases in proportion as he stands in need of its succor.

Though timid in nature, and fragile in form, there is yet an innate firmness in the female character, which shines conspicuous in seasons of difficulty. Though alarmed at immediate danger, or unlooked for calamity, because unprepared for such sudden events, it is when evil has settled like a dark cloud upon their prospects, and appears to have closed every avenue to escape; it is then, when fortitude, patience and firmness are essentially necessary, that the

female mind appears in all its excellence, and displays that energy and courage which heaven seems to have bestowed upon it peculiarly for such emergencies. It arouses the flagging spirits of its companion, inspires confidence where all before was despondence, removes difficulties where difficulties appeared to be insurmountable, and again arouses into action those faculties of the man, which had bowed and given away under the pressure of adversity.

Heaven has ordained "that it is not good for man to be alone:" in fact he is dependent both for advice, for comfort and for aid, upon the very being who clings to him for support. How essential then is it those who can impart so much relief, when relief is so much required, should in addition to those powers which they naturally possess, be so improved by education as to become efficient counsellors at those times when the exercise of a sound judgment, and the advice of a sound mind, will be as necessary as the solace of affection!

It is indeed, intelligence which, gives variety to the female character, removing that tedium and sameness of home, which so many complain of, and diffusing gladness and sunshine in the dwellings of private life. Having a mutual reliance upon the judgement as well as upon the affection of each other, their hearts become anchored at home; that home which is the place of their greatest usefulness, becomes also the place of their greatest felicity. Thus, respecting each other, and respected by the world, they become living examples of the benefits to be mutually derived from a good education.

But there are also other duties, which in domestic life a mother is called upon to perform.

To her is intrusted the care of their offspring in their years of infancy. It is from the mother that the infant mind receives its first impressions, and its earliest bias. And who is there of us, that looks back upon his days of childhood, but must affectingly feel the truth of this observation?

Who was it that first taught the infant tongue to lisp the elementary principles of learning? Who first taught the infant knee to bend in prayer, and directed its aspirations to a being all perfect and benevolent? Who was it, that, with assiduous care sowed in its ductile mind those seeds of virtue, which in after life have produced such a rich harvest of blessing to itself, and of usefulness to others? For these, and countless acts of kindness, it is indebted, and almost entirely indebted, to maternal tenderness. There is no affection so untiring as the affection of a mother; there is no solicitude which equals her solicitude for the welfare of her offspring. The anxiety with which she watches over their years of helplessness, the patience with which she assists them to develope the infant

faculties which they possess, the pride which mantles in her bosom as she marks their progress in knowledge, the light which beams from her countenance at every fresh display of talent and of mental excellence. These heartfelt emotions, these looks of gladness, speak more eloquently than language, the watchfulness, the strength, and the endurance of maternal affection.

And if such is the power of maternal feeling, how important that those who will thus have the moulding of the infant mind, should themselves be thoroughly instructed! The stamp to character is then given—the impression made in infancy is lasting—the real germ of the future man is formed at that period. Long before his faculties shall be matured, he may have received an inclination different from that for which nature originally designed him, and which never can be entirely removed. For while we do justice to the female character, it must not be forgotten, that no greater evil can happen to the young, than to be left to the care of mothers ignorant or depraved. Maternal influence will still prevail, but how improperly may it be directed; maternal affection will still be there, but oh, how perverted in its usefulness! Spoiled by indulgence, or depraved by the force of a bad example, the spring-time of life will be suffered to run to waste, and those precious moments will be lavished in idleness, or what is worse, will be debased by vice, on the wise improvement of which, their future usefulness and prosperity must depend.

How much talent has been lost by the misapplication of those golden hours; and which misapplication has been occasioned more by the inconsiderate and perverse conduct of those who then unfortunately had the power to control, than by the follies and effervescence of youthful passion and extravagance! How also may false notions, and inveterate prejudices, and against which, a powerful mind in after life, has been able with difficulty to contend, how may these be traced to the enduring impressions made upon the mind in childhood! Though age shall have ripened the faculties, and though reason may refute, and innate manliness of character may generally cause the mind to rise superior to these delusions, yet the impression made by them in early life, will still be there; and its power will be felt in those moments of despondency when the strong faculties of the mind have been wearied into lassitude by over exertion, or have been subdued and broken down by misfortune.

The intellectual improvement of children does not generally arrest a father's attention, until after the years more properly belonging to infancy have passed. Engaged in the active pursuits of life, he has not leisure, nor indeed does it appear to him essential, that his time should be devoted to the mental improvement of his children. Their early instruction is therefore left to a mother's watch-

fulness, and he reserves his own immediate attention for their riper age; and yet before the child shall be taken under his especial care, its habits, its disposition, and its mode of thinking and of acting may be radically formed, and these may entirely counteract all his judicious efforts for the correct education of his children.

I repeat it, therefore, it is all important that those who will early have so much influence over the young, and in consequence over their after conduct, should at the same time have the ability to instruct them.

There is one other consideration which presses upon us the importance of thoroughly educating our female children—it is the consideration of public good. I have endeavored to show that a judicious education must eventuate in their individual happiness, and in the happiness of those domestic circles, to which they shall respectively belong. And what is public happiness but the aggregate of domestic happiness? Well regulated families make a well regulated community. From these seats of discipline and affection is imparted that social order, and those wholesome rules which bind men together in bonds of affection, as well as of interest, and tend essentially to promote the general weal.

Licentiousness in a people, may be traced to licentiousness in the circles of private life. Virtue is sapped there, corruption commences there, and from thence is its poison diffused through the veins of the body politic.

These children who now repose on the bosom of maternal affection, are to be the future arbiters of the state. These are to form our magistrates, our legislators, our rulers. To their keeping are to be intrusted all the immunities we possess. If they are intelligent and virtuous, in their hands these immunities will be safe: if they are ignorant and base, by their instrumentality may those great blessings be jeopardised or lost. Let their minds therefore be taken hold of early and powerfully, let them be trained from childhood to the exercise of manly thought, and be imbued with the principles of a strict and unyielding integrity.

In every point of light therefore, in which it can engage our attention, how important is the female character, how great its influence upon the well-being and the operations of man! Wherever an opportunity has been afforded to it of developing its capacities, it has shown itself worthy of all the culture it has received, and equal to what it has undertaken to perform; respectable in all those departments of literature in which it has been employed, unrivalled in those of taste, of fancy, and of feeling.

Thus calculated both to adorn and to instruct, if we but improve the natural talents of our female children; if we but give to them a good education, we prepare them to become the ornaments of their

families, a blessing to their children, and to rank deservedly among the useful and meritorious members of the community.

I have thought it necessary to make these remarks upon the opening of this Institution, which, on a liberal scale, is to be exclusively devoted to female education. I have thought it necessary, because, although at this enlightened period a general sentiment prevails in favor of extending the benefits of a good education in common to our children; yet prejudices do exist in the minds of many worthy parents, against the necessity of giving what is termed a finished education to their female children.

I would not wish to be understood as advocating their attention to any abstruse branches of science. Such knowledge is not necessary for them, nor would it be useful, and the prejudices against female learning may have arisen from its being in some cases improperly directed; but I do advocate their being made thoroughly acquainted with those branches of knowledge which will be particularly useful in all the various concerns of life. They should be made critically acquainted with their own language; and it would be well that they also receive instruction in other modern languages, and especially in the French, the use of which at present so generally prevails. They should be made acquainted with the world in which they live; its form, countries, beings, and properties. Their studies should be directed to practical arithmetic, to geography thoroughly, and to the principles of astronomy. All these branches of education are comprehended in the course of instruction which is prescribed for this Seminary; and it will be found upon examining this course, that those subjects of knowledge, which are necessary for females in domestic economy, have not been sacrificed to those which are ornamental. Such a judicious selection has been made both of study and employment for the pupils as is suited to their sex, and will prepare them for presiding with skill and prudence in those domestic stations, for which providence has designed them. This course of education will, as far as it is practicable, be pursued upon the monitorial system of instruction. The advantages of this system, in regard to elementary instruction, we have had sufficient time and opportunity to test fully during the last year, in our school for male children; and as some have expressed apprehensions, lest in so great a collection of female children, it might be difficult to preserve that order and neatness which their sex peculiarly requires, I would answer those apprehensions by referring those who entertain them to the public schools established for the education of poor female children in various parts of this city. I have never witnessed more discipline—neatness—propriety of conduct, and greater proficiency among pupils, than I have witnessed in those public schools. In fact, I would invite those who

to visit those schools—it is the most powerful argument I can use; for I venture to say, that no one can visit them without feelings of the deepest emotion, and without being fully convinced of their great utility in all those elementary principles of education to which those schools are devoted.

This Seminary commences under the fairest auspices. It is established in a part of the city which has been uniformly healthy, and which in the course of a few years will be in the very centre of our population. The ladies who will teach in its different departments have been highly distinguished in other institutions, and some of them have had much experience in the monitorial method of instruction.

We therefore recommend this Institution to your patronage, and we trust that your children who shall be instructed in it, will by their moral conduct and their literary acquirements, repay your attention to them, reflect credit upon their instructers, and afford in themselves the best testimony that the patronage which you shall have bestowed upon this Institution, shall not have been bestowed in vain.

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CHRIST CHURCH SUNDAY SCHOOL, BOSTON.

[The following account is extracted from the Report of the Superintendent of Christ Church Sunday School, Boston. It furnishes, we think, much useful matter, not only for the teachers of Sunday schools, but for every instructer who has the charge of young children, in any department of education. In the management of this school, valuable improvements seem to be borrowed from the methods of Lancaster, and Pestalozzi, and from the no less valuable, though somewhat obsolete, method of familiar explanatory instruction from the lips of the teacher, without regard to name or theory. The superintendent has, from all

these sources, compiled an ingenious and practical arrangement, which seems excellently adapted to the purposes of instruction. The valuable report, to which our present extracts form the appendix, is, we understand, to appear soon in print. That it will form a very desirable contribution to improvements in education, we have no doubt; and we hope that it will be extensively perused by parents and teachers.]

PLAN OF INSTRUCTION ADOPTED IN CHRIST CHURCH SUNDAY SCHOOL.

In giving an account of our plan of instruction, it will be necessary to advert to the manner in which our scholars are arranged, the order of lessons, &c.

Arrangement of Classes.

The children are arranged in classes, according to the best estimation we can form of their capacities for receiving and retaining instruction. They are divided into five classes; the highest of which is denominated the *monitorial class*, and is at present entirely under the care of the Superintendent. It is composed of those children, of both sexes, who, having attended to the lessons of the other classes, are preparing to become teachers in the school. When any of the teachers are absent, their places are supplied from this class.

The other scholars are divided into four classes; and each class is subdivided into as many sub-classes, called divisions, as are found to be necessary. At present, there are two divisions in each class. A teacher is appointed to each division. There is also a *preparatory class*, in which new scholars are placed, and continue till they are qualified to enter one of the regular classes.

The arrangement of the children according to their different capacities, brings together, in each class, children of *nearly* the same age. But as many children have better capacities than the average of those of their own age, and many others are below that average, this division will never be *exactly* according to their ages. The following Table exhibits the arrangement of our classes on this principle; and from it we form our scheme of the proper lessons to be learned by each of the classes.

Class	IV.	Division	2.	Children	under	4	years	of age.
"	"	"	1.	"	from	4	to	5.
"	III.	"	2.	"	"	5	"	6.
"	"	"	1.	"	"	6	"	8.
"	II.	"	2.	"	"	8	"	9.
"	"	"	1.	"	"	9	"	11.
"	I.	"	2.	"	"	11	"	12.
"	"	"	1.	"	"	12	"	14.
Monitorial class,				"	"	14	"	16.

Our course of instruction is on an extensive plan; but the number of those who are able to avail themselves of it are few, compared with the whole number of our scholars. Many enter the school at an age more advanced than that of our lowest class, and others continue only a short time, or leave the school before they have gone through the prescribed course. Those who continue till they have gone through all the classes, attend to a complete and systematic course of lessons, and may be said to have a regular religious education. Those who do not enter at an early age cannot, at first, be placed in classes consisting of pupils of their own age and capacity; but if they are diligent, and attend faithfully to all the studies assigned them in the preparatory class, and the reviews taken by the other scholars of their previous lessons, they may, in a short time, be raised to a standing with those of their own age and capacity. Those who leave school before the prescribed age, will of course lose all the benefit of the lessons learned in the classes to which they have not been advanced.

Lessons.

These are arranged in the following order.

1. Sermon.
2. Scripture.
3. Short catechism for children who are unable to read.
4. Hymns suited for do. do.
5. Morning and evening prayers for children of 3 or 4 years old.
6. Graces before and after meals.
7. Prayers on entering and leaving church.
8. Hymns.
9. Morning and evening prayers for children from 4 to 8 years old.
10. Introduction to Church Catechism.
11. Church Catechism.
12. Explanation of the Festivals and Fasts.
13. Method of finding the places in the Bible and Prayer Book
14. " " reading the Bible so as to understand it the more easily.
15. Prayers for children from 8 to 14 years old.
16. Explanation and Enlargement of the Catechism.
17. Exercises on the Catechism.
18. Explanation of the Liturgy, and directions for a decent and devout behavior in public worship.
19. Harmony of the Creeds, and the Creeds proved from Scripture.
20. Collects and prayers from Prayer Book.
21. Psalter from do.
22. Metrical Psalms and Hymns from do.

23. Harmony of the Gospels.
24. Bible History, Geography, and Chronology.
25. Natural History of the Bible.
26. Scripture Tables.
27. Evidences of Christianity.
28. Instruction in the chief truths of the Christian Religion.
29. Evidences of the Doctrines, Discipline, and Worship of the Protestant Episcopal Church.
30. Explanation of Confirmation.
31. " " the Thirty-nine Articles.
32. " " Lord's Supper.
33. Commentary on the Scriptures.
34. " " Prayer Book.

The lessons attended to in each class, are as follows:

Class	IV.	Division	2.	Nos.	1, to 6.
"	"	"	1.	"	1, 2, 6, to 9,
"	III.	"	2.	"	1, 2, 6, to 11.
"	"	"	1.	"	1, 2, 6, to 14.
"	II.	"	2.	"	1, 2, 8, 10, to 17.
"	"	"	1.	"	1, 2, 8, 10, to 22.
"	I.	"	2.	"	1, 2, 8, 10, to 25.
"	"	"	1.	"	1, 2, 8, 10, to 28.
Monitorial class,				"	1, to 34.

From the above tables, it will be perceived that every scholar in the school attends to a scripture exercise, and also to an exercise upon a sermon. In the morning, the four lowest divisions have a sermon read to them by their teacher, from Burder's Sermons to Children, Sermons to Children by a Lady, or a similar book, and are examined upon it in the afternoon. The other classes are examined upon the sermons they hear at church.

General Principles.

The grand principle upon which we proceed, is explanation; and books are used only as guides or assistants to the teachers. Every thing is *first* explained to the children; and then, if necessary, they may commit the lesson to memory. But in no case whatever, if it can possibly be avoided, do we require them to commit to memory what has not first been explained to them. 'There is always danger lest what is committed to memory, or, as it is commonly expressed, learned, without having been previously understood, should either bring disgust to the mind, by exciting an effort which is followed by no immediate gratification, or should soon be forgotten,

In order, then, as much as possible to obviate these difficulties, whenever it may be thought necessary to exercise the memory in that which is above the intellectual power of a child, the teacher should endeavor to select those modes of expression which approach the nearest to the language of childhood; or, if this should be impossible, to model the lessons so as to excite some pleasurable sensation with its attainment.'

Another principle by which we are governed, is, to use as plain and simple language as possible, and of two words, or two forms of expression, always to use the simplest, so that the children may not be at a loss to understand our meaning. For instance, if in examing the children on the sermon, we ask, 'What conclusion did the minister draw from all this?' or, 'What moral application did he make of his subject?' few, probably, will understand what we mean. But if we ask, 'What did the minister tell us we must do, when he said this?' they will be at no loss to comprehend the question. And in single words also, as well as in phrases, the simplest should always be chosen. Instead of asking a child 'Who *created* you?' we shall be more likely to be understood, if we ask 'Who *made* you?' This principle we think should be carried into all our conversation with our scholars.

In all our exercises, we recognise the importance of the principle laid down by Mr. Wilson, that the minds of very young children cannot be exercised with cheerfulness on any subject, for a longer space of time than about *a quarter of an hour;* and as most of our scholars are very young, we endeavor carefully to meet this tendency to weariness, by dividing our lessons into so small portions, that they do not occupy more than that time.

Division of Time.

The morning exercises commence at 8 o'clock, and close at 10, which gives us two hours for instruction. These we divide into six portions of fifteen minutes each, and six portions of five minutes each. The first portion of fifteen minutes is devoted to opening the school with prayers and singing, and the other five portions to the various exercises of each class. Four of the portions of five minutes each come in between the exercises of the classes, and are devoted to some general exercise, in which all the scholars are simultaneously engaged; such as singing or repeating a hymn, or repeating portions of scripture, or of the catechism, &c. The other two portions of five minutes each are occupied in filling out the *roll-book*, sending round the *missionary box*,* and closing the school.

The afternoon exercises commence at half past 1 o'clock, and close at a quarter before 3 o'clock, giving us an hour and a quarter

* For the object of this box, and the amount received from it, see the Report.

for instruction, which we divide into four portions of ten minutes each, two portions of fifteen minutes each, and one of five minutes. The portion of five minutes is devoted to opening the school with singing; three of the portions of ten minutes each, and one of fifteen minutes, are occupied by the teachers in the exercises of their respective classes; one portion of ten minutes is reserved for addressing the whole school in a simple lecture or enlargement by the superintendent on some of the exercises of the day, or to addresses from clergymen and others who may visit the school; and the other portion of fifteen minutes is devoted to filling out the *roll-book*, sending round the *missionary box*, and closing the school with singing and prayers. Between each of the class exercises, the scholars are all engaged in one general exercise, such as repeating some short sentence of scripture, which occupies but very little time, and is deducted from the portions allotted to the class exercises.

In order to give notice of the termination of the exercises in which the classes are engaged separately, and call the attention of the children to the general exercise, it is necessary for the superintendent to have some signal which the scholars will all understand. For this purpose, we use a small bell, which may either be carried in the hand, or fixed in a permanent position in some suitable place. At the expiration of the period allotted to each lesson, or on any occasion of calling the attention of the children, this bell is *rung*.

As it is important that the superintendent should speak to the scholars publickly, as seldom as possible, the bell is further used in directing some of the motions of the scholars, such as standing, sitting, kneeling, &c. For this purpose, after the bell has been *rung* to call their attention, it is struck *once*, to direct them to rise from their seats; or, if they are already standing, one stroke directs them to sit. Two strokes may be a direction to kneel, and other motions may be directed in the same manner. By this mode of giving directions, the superintendent's voice is not so often heard as it otherwise would be; and the attention and the memory of the children are called into exercise.

It will be observed, that several subjects are appointed for some of the lessons; and it may be asked, how they are to be attended to in the short space of time allotted to them. But when it is recollected, that the scholars are expected to stay three years in each class, and that those lessons are not all to be attended to at the same time, it will be seen that time enough is given to attend to all. And as all the preceding lessons are occasionally reviewed, it will serve to prevent the scholars, forgetting what they have committed to memory; though, it may be observed, from the manner in which their lessons are learned, they will not be likely very soon to forget them.

The manner in which the various exercises are apportioned, may be seen in the following *table of exercises for the different parts of the day*.

TABLE OF EXERCISES FOR THE DIFFERENT PARTS OF THE DAY.

The figures, which in this table are in the place of lessons, refer to the lessons which are numbered on pp. 280,281. The table, if read horizontally, will show all the lessons of each class; and if read perpendicularly, will show the lessons of all the classes, in each division of time.

MORNING.

Class.	Division.	15 minutes.	15 minutes.	5 m.	15 minutes.	5 m.	15 minutes.	5 m.	15 minutes.	5 m.	15 minutes.	5 m.	5 m.
Monitorial.		This time is devoted to opening the school with prayers and singing.	[1] Sermon.	General Exercise,—say Catechism.	[2] Scripture.	General Exercise, say, singing.	[3] 29, 31, 33.	General Exercise, say, Catechism.	30, 32, 34,	General Exercise—say, Repeating a hymn.	[4] Narrative.	Sending round *missionary box*, and filling out *roll-book*.	Closing the school with singing and prayer.
I.	1.		same.		same.		26, 27.		28.		same.		
I.	2.		same.		same.		23, 24.		25.		same.		
II.	1.		same.		same.		18, 19.		20, 21, 22.		same.		
II.	2.		same.		same.		15, 16.		17.		same.		
III.	1.		[5] same.		same.		12.		13, 14.		same.		
III.	2.		same.		same.		10.		11.		same.		
IV.	1.		same.		[6] same.		7, 8.		9.		[7] same.		
IV.	2.		same.		same.		3, 4.		5, 6.		same.		

AFTERNOON.

Class.	Division.	5 minutes.	10 minutes.		15 minutes.		10 minutes.		10 minutes.		10 minutes.	15 minutes.
Monitorial.		This time is occupied in opening the school, with singing.	[1] Sermon.	General Exercise.	[2] Scripture.	General Exercise.	[3] 29, 31, 33.	General Exercise.	30, 32, 34.	General Exercise.	This time is devoted to addressing the children by a clergyman or visiter, or, to a short lecture by the superintendent on some part of the general exercises.	Sending round *missionary box*, filling out the *roll-book*, and closing the school as in the morning.
I.	1.		same.		same.		26, 27.		28.			
I.	2.		same.		same.		23, 24.		25.			
II.	1.		same.		same.		18, 19.		20, 21, 22.			
II.	2.		same.		same.		15, 16.		17.			
III.	1.		[5] same.		same.		12.		13, 14.			
III.	2.		same.		same.		10.		11.			
IV.	1.		same.		[6] same.		7, 8.		9.			
IV.	2.		same.		same.		3, 4.		5, 6.			

[1] Mentioned on p. 285. [2] Mentioned on p. 286. [3] These exercises are first attended to in the morning, and reviewed in the afternoon. [4] This exercise is the review of a book (commonly a religious narrative) lent the class the preceding Sunday, mentioned on p. 287. [5] Mentioned on p. 285. [6] Mentioned on p. 286. [7] This exercise is that mentioned on p. 287—the teacher reading a story or anecdote to the class, explaining it, and questioning them upon it.

EXERCISES.

The exercises are conducted in the following manner:

Morning.

Previous to the time appointed for opening the school with prayer, some interesting anecdote or story is usually related to the scholars by the superintendent, to fix their attention. This also serves as an inducement to the children to attend punctually. They are then questioned upon what has been related to them. We labor under a very serious difficulty in procuring anecdotes or stories which are short and simple enough for our purpose; most of the stories which are written professedly for children, not being adapted to their capacities. A volume of anecdotes and short tales, of this description, would be a desirable acquisition.

A short address is then made to the children, on the importance of the duty in which they are about engaging; they are reminded of the duty of asking a blessing on all their labors, and are asked how children should behave when preparing to address their Creator? To this they reply, 'With attention and reverence.' They are then desired so to behave, and are admonished to join in the prayers with their hearts, as well as their lips. Some further responses follow, and the bell is then struck for the scholars to kneel, while the usual prayers are offered. When all have risen, and have united in one or two simple responses, a hymn is given out to be sung. This is first read and explained, questions are asked upon it, and then all join in singing it. This will bring us to fifteen minutes past 8 o'clock. The punctual attendance of those who may be present is then marked on the *roll-book*, and all the classes engage in their lessons, as follows.

First lesson. In all the classes, this is an exercise on a sermon. The teachers of the four lowest divisions read a sermon or part of a sermon to their scholars, explaining it, and questioning them upon it. The teachers of the other classes question their pupils on the sermon preached at church the preceding Sunday in the afternoon, and explaining to them those parts which they may not understand. By this means, the scholars are induced to attend to the sermon in church, and the teacher has an opportunity of simplifying it, and adapting it to the capacities of the scholars, and pointing out its moral or application; and though the scholars are required to give as good an account as they can of what they hear, the object of this lesson is to furnish the teacher with an opportunity of giving them a general view of the whole sermon, and supplying their deficiencies. This lesson occupies fifteen minutes, and the superintendent then rings his bell to call the attention of the scholars to a

General exercise, in which *all* are engaged and repeat together,

after him, some portion of the catechism, or passages of scripture; each sentence being subdivided into small portions, and a pause made between the repetition of each. The children are then questioned upon what they have been repeating; the questions being sometimes addressed to, and answered by, individuals, and sometimes being general, and answered by the whole school. This exercise occupies five minutes. The bell is then struck for them to take their seats, and they proceed to the

Second lesson, which, for all the classes is an exercise in the scriptures. In class IV., the teacher reads to the children a short portion of scripture, and explains it to them; mentioning such geographical, historical, or chronological circumstances connected with it, as occur in the passage, or may be suited to the capacities of the children. If any place is mentioned, it is pointed out to them on the map; if any custom is referred to, it is explained; if any animal or plant is spoken of, a picture of it is shown, if it can be procured; and every other means are used to make the exercise interesting and instructive. The children are then questioned upon what has been said to them, and if they have forgotten it, it is repeated to them again and again; till they can answer the questions, and they repeat the passage with their teacher. Though a very small portion, perhaps only one verse, will constitute the whole lesson committed to memory from the scripture, yet that one verse will probably be well understood; and more actual scriptural knowledge will be acquired by the children, than if they had committed to memory, in the usual manner, a whole chapter. But the verse thus committed to memory is not all the knowledge they have acquired in this lesson; the explanation of it by the teacher, with the geographical and historical illustrations brought in aid of that explanation, constitute a much larger portion of the knowledge acquired. It is the object of the teacher to point out the moral of the passages and form in the children a habit of observing for themselves the design of what they read.

The other classes are reviewed in the scripture exercise which was explained to them the preceding Sunday afternoon, and which they were directed to commit to memory during the week.*

When the fifteen minutes allotted to this lesson have expired, the scholars are called to another

General exercise, which is generally singing one or more verses of a hymn; it being previously explained to them, and they questioned upon it. At the stroke of the bell they again take their seats, and commence their

* The teachers use Alger's Pronouncing Bible and Testament, Wilbur's Reference Bible, and Blake's Biblical Reader. It is to be regretted that we have not one book uniting the separate merits of these three valuable works. Such a publication has been suggested, but unless it is executed, teachers will do well to consult all three.

Third lesson, which is different in all the classes, as will be seen in the *table of exercises* for the different parts of the day, on p. 284. This may be, either a review of the third lesson of the preceding Sunday afternoon, which has been committed to memory during the week, or the first exercise on the prescribed study, which is to be reviewed in the afternoon of this day. The manner and subject of this lesson will be mentioned hereafter. When the fifteen minutes allotted to this lesson have expired, the scholars are called to another

General exercise. This is usually the repetition of a portion of the catechism, or a passage of scripture, as before. The children then take their seats, and attend to their

Fourth lesson, which is also different in all the classes, as will be seen in the table, p. 284. This lesson will also be explained hereafter. It is succeeded by another

General exercise, of repeating together one or more verses of a hymn; after which, the scholars again take their seats as before, and the teachers proceed to the

Fifth lesson. This, like the first and second, is similar in all the classes. In class IV., the teacher reads to the children some interesting story or anecdote, and questions them upon it. A small book is lent to the children in the other classes, which they are permitted to read during the week, and in this lesson, they are called upon for an account of it.

These exercises occupy the time till ten minutes before ten o'clock; when the bell is rung, and notice given that the *missionary box* is about being carried round. This is done by one of the *monitorial class;* the superintendent meanwhile recording on the *roll-book* the attendance of the scholars; and the exercises are then closed, with responses, singing, and prayer.

Those children who attend public worship with their parents, are then dismissed by a signal from the bell; the other scholars are arranged in a procession in the school, and proceed, under the care of their respective teachers, to the church.

Afternoon.

The morning services at church not being over till 12 o'clock, and sometimes later, few of the teachers find it convenient to attend before half past 1 o'clock; and the afternoon exercises are appointed to commence at that hour. Many of the scholars, however, are present before 1 o'clock; and the superintendent usually commences about that time the reading of some interesting story or anecdote, and questions the scholars upon it, as in the morning. At the hour appointed for opening, the punctual attendance of those who are present is marked on the *roll-book;* a suitable hymn is sung; and

after a few responses, the bell struck for the children to take their seats, and attend to their

First lesson. This, like the first lesson in the morning, is in all the classes a sermon exercise. The scholars of the four lowest divisions are interrogated on the sermon read to them in the morning; and the other scholars are examined on the forenoon sermon preached at church. Ten minutes are allowed to this lesson, and then the bell is rung to call the attention of the scholars to a

General exercise. This is simply the repetition by all the scholars together, of a short passage of scripture, or a moral sentiment, and then, at the usual signal, the children take their seats, and proceed to the

Second lesson. This, like the second lesson in the morning, is in all the classes a scripture exercise. The children of class IV., recapitulate the second lesson to which they attended in the morning; and the other classes have a lesson assigned them to commit to memory during the week. This is now explained to them in a manner similar to that in which the second lesson of class IV. is explained in the morning, with additional illustrations suited to the more advanced capacities of the scholars. Fifteen minutes are allotted to this lesson, and the whole school then attends to another

General exercise, like the former. After which, they commence their

Third lesson. This, like the third lesson in the morning, differs in all the classes, and will be more particularly mentioned hereafter. The portion of time allowed for this lesson is ten minutes; and then the school is engaged in another

General exercise, like the former.

Fourth lesson. This, also, is different in all the classes, and will be more particularly mentioned hereafter. Ten minutes are allowed for this lesson, and then follows another

General exercise, like the preceding.

Fifth lesson. The ten minutes allowed for this lesson are devoted to a general address to the scholars, from any visiter or other person who may be present and requested by the superintendent to address them; or, to a simple lecture on some part of the general exercises of the day, by the superintendent.

These exercises occupy the time till half past two o'clock; when the bell is rung to give notice that the *missionary box* is to be sent round, as in the morning. The *roll-book* is then completed, and the exercises closed with responses, singing, and prayers. The scholars who attend public worship with their parents, then retire, and the others are arranged as in the morning, and proceed to church.

In the preceding statement, it was mentioned that the third and fourth lessons of the course would be more particularly explained afterwards. As they are different in each class, it will be convenient to speak of them in the order of the classes. It may here be premised, that where lessons are given to the scholars to commit to memory, they are first explained in the afternoon lessons, and reviewed the next Sunday morning. In other cases, the explanation is given in the morning, and the lesson is reviewed in the afternoon.

Class IV. Division 2. Age, under 4 years.

Third lesson. (3.)*Short catechism for children who are unable to read. This consists of such plain and easy questions and answers, as are adapted to the capacities of the children. The subject is first explained to the scholars, and they then repeat the answers after their teacher, and afterwards alone, until they are able to recollect them without difficulty. These questions and answers are mostly oral, and such as occur to the teacher from an examination of the prayers, &c. used by these children; for there are no books exactly suited to this purpose. Dr. Watts's Plain and Easy Catechism for Children contains much that is valuable; but most of even that is too high for the capacities of very small children.

(4.)Hymns suited to children who are unable to read. The stock of these is also very small; but we are able to select verses from different hymns which answer our purpose; and as it is the duty of the teacher to explain every word before the children learn the verse, and as poetry is easy to commit to memory, we do not find so much difficulty as might be expected. The children commit the hymns to memory by repeating after the teacher.

Fourth lesson. (5.)Morning and evening prayers, and (6.)graces before and after meals, for children who cannot read. For these, we use the Method of Daily Prayer compiled by Rev. Dr. Jarvis and published by the Superintendent. Some of the prayers are taken from Dr. Watts and others: they consist of short sentences such as 'I thank thee, O God, that thou hast taken such care of me this night, and that I am alive and well this morning. Save me, O Lord, from evil all this day, and let me live and serve thee for ever.' 'I pray thee, O Lord, to forgive me whatever I have done amiss this day, and keep me safe all this night while I am asleep.' These, also, are learned by repeating them after the teacher.

Class IV. Division 1. Age, from 4 to 5 years.

Third lesson. (7.)Prayers on entering and leaving the church:—(8.)Hymns from Dr. Watts's Divine and Moral Songs. These are learned by repeating them after the teacher, and committing them to memory at home, being first explained by the teacher.

* These figures in parentheses refer to the numbers of the lessons on pp. 290, 291.

Fourth lesson. (9.)Morning and evening prayers for children from 4 to 8 years old. These are taken from the Method of Daily Prayer, and are learned like the preceding lessons. In this lesson, they also occasionally review lesson No. 6.

Class III. Division 2. Age, from 5 to 6 years.

Third lesson. (10.)Introduction to Church Catechism. For this exercise we have no suitable books; and the teachers are left to their own judgement, consulting such books as have been published in explanation of the catechism, and gleaning from them such ideas as may be suitable for the purpose. A specimen of the manner of this introduction, taken from Mr. Wilson's book, is inserted in the Report.

Fourth lesson. (11.)Repeating the catechism as far as it has been previously explained in the third lesson:—also occasionally reviewing lessons 6, 7, 8, 9.

Class III. Division 1. Age, from 6 to 8 years.

Third lesson. (12.)Explanation of the Festivals and Fasts, from the Manual compiled by the Superintendent, and other books on the same subject.

Fourth lesson. (13.)Method of finding the places for the day in the Bible and Prayer Book—(14.)Method of reading the Bible so as to understand it more easily. Also occasionally reviewing 6—11.

Class II. Division 2. Age, from 8 to 9 years.

Third lesson. (15.)Prayers for children from 8 to 14 years old, from the Method of Daily Prayer, and the Superintendent's Manual. As the children are taught to use these daily, they will soon have committed them to memory, and will only need to review them occasionally, so that it may be ascertained how constant they are in the use of them in private. This will give sufficient time for attending to (16.)Explanation and Enlargement of the Church Catechism. For this we use the New-York Catechism, and the Familiar and Easy Guide, prepared by Rev. Dr. Jarvis.

Fourth lesson. (17.)Exercises on the Catechism from the Superintendent's Manual, and Dr. Abercrombie's valuable Lectures:—also, reviewing, occasionally, 8, 10—14.

Class II. Division 1. Age, from 9 to 11 years.

Third lesson. (18.)Explanation of the Liturgy, and directions for a decent and devout behavior in public worship. No suitable book has yet been published on this subject. The Superintendent has prepared a tract for this purpose, which will be used in the school

in manuscript, till circumstances shall favor its publication, or till a more suitable work shall be published by some other person.

(19.)Harmony of the Creeds, and the Creeds proved from scripture, from the Familiar and Easy Guide.

Fourth lesson. (20.)Collects and prayers from Prayer Book:—(21.) Psalter from the same:—(22.)Metrical Psalms and Hymns from the same:—also, occasional reviews of 8, 10—17.

Class I. Division 2. Age, from 11 to 12 years.

Third lesson. (23.)Harmony of the Gospels, by Rev. Dr. Jarvis:—(24.)Bible History, Geography, and Chronology. These last are introduced into the general scripture exercises of all the classes, whenever opportunity offers; but here they are made a distinct exercise.

Fourth lesson. (25.)Natural History of the Bible:—reviews of 8, 10—25.

Class I. Division 1. Age, from 12 to 14 years.

Third lesson. (26.)Scripture tables,&c. from Wilbur's Reference Bible:—(27.)Evidences of Christianity, from Porteus, Paley, Dalcho, &c.:—(28.)Instruction in the chief truths of the Christian religion, from Bishop Hobart's Abridgement of Gastrell's Christian Institutes, and other books.

Monitorial Class. Age, from 14 to 16 years.

Third lesson. (29.)Evidences of the Doctrines, Discipline, and Worship of the Protestant Episcopal Church:—(31.)Explanation of the Thirty-nine Articles:—(33.)Commentary on the Scriptures.

Fourth lesson. (30.)Explanation of Confirmation—(32.)Explanation of the Lord's Supper—(34.)Commentary on the Prayer Book:—reviews of all the preceding.

It is hoped, that when the members of this class have attended to the subject of confirmation, they will be prepared and ready to receive that ordinance. After which, they will attend to the explanation of the Lord's supper; and when they become familiar with the duties and privileges of those who are worthy recipients of that holy sacrament, we trust they will themselves become desirous of uniting with the other members of the Church in its observance. They will then, it is hoped, become teachers in the school, and be prepared and enabled to dispense to others, those benefits which they have themselves received in the school.

General Observations.

In compiling this *plan of instruction*, the Superintendent endeavored to select what was valuable in the systems of Pestalozzi, Bell, Lancaster, Wilson, Wilderspin, and others, without any re-

gard to names. As his object was to form a practical and permanent system—one which would be pleasant and profitable both to the teachers and scholars—he collected information from many various sources, and endeavored to select from each such principles and practices as would be useful and practicable in our own school. In this, he trusts, he has succeeded; and in effecting this desirable object, he has received much assistance, and many valuable hints, from the gentleman mentioned in his Report. To this gentleman he is also indebted, for suggestions which induced him to alter the order of some of the lessons, and deviate, in some important particulars, from the course before pursued in the school.

That any features of our plan are entirely original, is not asserted; but some of them have never before been made public, or introduced into any other Sunday school within our knowledge. That the system is perfect, is not to be supposed; but time and experience will remedy any defects which may be discovered to exist. And as nearly all our teachers and scholars are decidedly of the opinion that the present plan is far preferable to any other with which we are acquainted, we need not fear for the result.

Some objections have been made to the short time allowed for each lesson, and the number of exercises attended to on each Sunday. But this we esteem one of the peculiar merits of our present system. Instruction should never be tiresome to children, but should *always* be made pleasant; and novelty, a very serviceable means for fixing the attention of the children, should, as far as consistent, be regarded as desirable. Children soon become fatigued by constantly attending to one subject; and as soon as they are tired, instruction does them no good. Indeed, it is not instruction, to them, but an object of disgust or aversion.

It has been asked, Is not the practice of repeating together too noisy for a Sunday school, and will not the introduction of this plan bring disorder and confusion along with it? To this it may be replied, that the best things are often abused. But, so far from this plan being calculated to produce disorder and confusion, it has the effect of producing more order and regularity. Noisy, perhaps, it *may* be called; but it is the noise of children engaged in delightful occupations; the effect of a system which keeps every individual constantly employed, during the whole time he may be in school. And is it not delightful to hear the voices of many children united in singing or repeating hymns, or portions of scripture, or otherwise engaged in learning what will be useful to them in this world and the next? That this plan is not productive of silence, is allowed; but silence is neither necessary nor useful in a Sunday school. 'Even order, however important in itself, is in a Sunday school to be desired, chiefly for its connection with a future good, and there-

fore should by no means be secured to the prejudice of further instruction.' All the arrangements of the school should, as far as possible, be made pleasant to the scholars; for, if children dislike the arrangements of the school, they will dislike the teacher who makes or enforces them, and will transfer their aversion to the instruction he may attempt to convey, and receive it with reluctance. And this may produce in their minds a distaste for all instruction, and a feeling of resistance to all authority.

For the reasons mentioned in the Report, external rewards of every kind have been entirely excluded from our system for several years; and as on our plan of instruction the children are kept constantly employed, they have no time in school for doing any thing deserving of punishment. For improper conduct in church, they are admonished, or suspended, according to our printed regulations.

Our *school room* is at present very inconvenient; but we hope to be, ere long, more conveniently accommodated. The proper arrangement for a Sunday school, and indeed for any school, seems to be that which will place all the children so as to face the master's desk. Semicircular seats, facing the superintendent, with a seat in the centre for the teacher or monitor, seem to be the most suitable; but if these cannot be obtained, benches can be used, placed so as to form three sides of a square, and the teacher may sit in the centre of the other side.

REVIEWS.

A Grammar of the Greek Language; originally composed for the College School, at Gloucester. Recommended by the University at Cambridge, Massachusetts, to be used by those who are intended for that Seminary. Carefully Revised and Corrected by George Ironside, A. M. New-York. Duyckink and Long.

Elements of Greek Grammar; taken chiefly from the Grammar of Caspar Frederick Hachenberg. Adopted for Use in Yale College, New-Haven. Hartford. Huntington and Hopkins.

The friends of Burke have remarked of that great man, that 'if, like the early sages of Greece, he were to be characterised by some peculiar sentiment, it should be that to which he desired to give the currency of a proverb—*to innovate is not to reform.*' We have often wished that those, who have in charge the affairs of the *republic of letters*, would apply to the administration of their little

pervade the same practical maxim, which that illustrious statesman would have established as fundamental, in the vast and complicated concerns of human society. Sufficient attention has not been paid, we have often thought, to the plain distinction between the administration, as it may be called, of the republic of learning, and the various objects of that administration; or, to drop the figure, between the mere modes or instruments, by which knowledge is to be communicated, and the constituent elements of knowledge itself. It is true, indeed, that in a certain sense an acquaintance with those instruments is a species of acquisition, which may be called knowledge: as the acquaintance of a mechanic with the tools of his trade may be called by the same name. But the instruments of knowledge, being only the means, and not the end of our pursuits in science and literature, must ever hold a subordinate rank to those objects which they enable us to attain.

This distinction, we think, has in no case been more overlooked, than in the study of languages. The ardent cultivation of ancient and modern literature in Europe, for a long time past, to say nothing of the constantly increasing intercourse of nations in consequence of commercial and other connections, has rendered it necessary to devote much more time to this study, than was required only half a century ago. The mercantile and many other classes must study the modern languages for purposes of business; while the scholar is also obliged to acquaint himself with them, because Latin, which was once the only medium of intercourse among the learned of different nations, is now less used than formerly for that purpose, and the numerous subjects of literature and science are more frequently discussed in the native languages of the writers. The business of authorship, too, has increased so rapidly, that it is quite impossible for any scholar, who would keep himself informed of the state of knowledge in the world, to wait till he can obtain translations, even if he could stoop to make use of those miserable substitutes for original works. The whole body of translators in Europe could not keep pace with his wants. A literary man, therefore, at the present day, must make himself acquainted with several of the modern languages, in order to possess himself of the same proportion of knowledge, and to sustain the same reputation which he formerly could do, by means of the Latin alone.

But this state of things is not practically attended with so many disadvantages, as might at first view be supposed; for the affinities of the European languages, the continual intercourse of nations, and the consequent diffusion of books and native teachers, render it almost as easy at the present day to acquaint oneself with several languages, as it formerly was with only one or two. We are still obliged, however, in making ourselves familiar with these in-

struments of knowledge, to spend much valuable time, which was saved at a period when Latin alone would have sufficed. How far the world has gained by this change, is no easy matter to determine; for, however clear it may at first seem, that it has tended to the advancement of knowledge, yet some obvious facts, in the history of science and literature, will at least make us hesitate before we come to that conclusion. If, for example, Lord Bacon could not have published his works in any other language than English, at a period when the nations of Europe had but little intercourse with each other, who can venture to say, how many years the world would be at this moment behind that advanced state in which we find it? Or, to take a later period, if the immortal works of Newton could not have had the advantage of being diffused in the Latin language, and thus made known at once to the scientific world, what would probably have been the present state of mathematical science? But we forbear indulging ourselves in reflections, which are leading us aside from our subject.

The study of languages, then, in consequence of the actual state of the European nations, has acquired an importance, which it did not formerly possess; and this has naturally led to a good deal of speculation and experiment, in regard to the best modes of studying both the ancient and modern languages. It is not our intention, on the present occasion, to discuss this general question, which, indeed, may not admit of a decision in the abstract; for, though it should be conceded, that all languages ought to be studied in the same manner by persons of any given age, yet we should probably find, that those of mature years may advantageously take a different course from children; because their memory is less tenacious, their time more valuable, and they are under the necessity of making an immediate application of their knowledge, as fast as they can obtain it, to purposes of practical use.

All nations have adopted *grammars* as the first instrument of acquiring languages; and we believe this course to be a wise one. Not that we are of opinion, that either a boy or an adult should be kept constantly employed upon the *rules*, and *exceptions to rules*, of a heavy grammar, without exemplifying them by reading and translating the language he is to learn; but that a certain portion of those general results, called rules, which have been ascertained by actual observation of the phenomena of speech, may be advantageously used, even by young students, in learning foreign languages; just as we use the like general results in the acquisition of the sciences.

We are aware, that there is at the present day, (we speak without reference to any individuals in particular,) a certain popular cant on the subject of acquiring languages, and every other species

of knowledge, by what is called *induction*, a term, which is constantly in the mouths of the superficial, by whom its real signification is as ill understood, as its history is by those who suppose the discovery of it to be the peculiar boast of modern times. If, indeed, those who would have us adopt this method in the acquisition of languages, as we understand their use of the term, would also require us to follow it in all our studies, the argument would at least be consistent. Now it may be asked, if we are not to avail ourselves of those general principles, or rules, in *languages*, which have been deduced from actual observation, but must begin anew by 'induction,' why should we not proceed by the same method in all the *sciences*? Why should we not, for example, in astronomy throw aside, as so much useless lumber, those sublime general truths, the discovery of which seems to have been reserved during so many ages by the author of nature for the mighty minds of Kepler and Newton; as the discovery and elucidation of numberless other general results, flowing from these, has also been reserved for a few, and very few, of their illustrious successors? Why should we not, too, in the study of other parts of nature, as botany, mineralogy, chemistry, and, in short, every branch of knowledge, refuse to avail ourselves of the like general truths, which were first discerned and investigated by the great men, who have immortalised themselves as the founders of these sciences? No: in the sciences, generally, it would be thought preposterous to keep a learner in ignorance of the various general truths, which have been already discovered, and to direct him to proceed by his own strength to investigate them for himself by the process of 'induction.' What! shall the whole natural world be laid before the pupil, in all its apparent confusion and irregularity, and he then be directed to class and arrange its parts, and with endless labor to investigate, if he should have the sagacity to discern them, those innumerable general results, which have been ascertained with so much labor, and which, in fact, constitute science? Shall he, for example, in botany be presented with the whole vegetable kingdom as an exercise, and be told that he must trace out the relations of its subjects, and reduce them to a system of some sort or other, natural or artificial, and thus arrive at those conclusions, which are the only useful fruits of study? Must he be immersed in the smoke and fumes of a laboratory all his life, in order to obtain a knowledge of those general laws of elementary bodies, which might be communicated in a few short lectures of his professor? Or must he be sent on a voyage of discovery, for such it would prove to be, throughout the boundless expanse of geometry, in order to find out by 'induction' the Forty Seventh of Euclid, and numberless other general propositions of incalculable importance to him in the pursuit of science?

Every man will agree, that this course would be absurd; if it were adopted, there would be little need of instructers in the sciences, because there would practically be an end of all science.

If, then, the present methods of teaching the sciences in general are proper, we can perceive no solid reason why the same course, to a certain extent, should not be pursued in the acquisition of foreign languages. The grammars of those languages present us with the various results, which have been obtained by the labor of centuries; and we may with little study, comparatively speaking, obtain the same general acquaintance with any language by a similar process to that which we should employ in order to master any science. The mode of using grammars, however, as we have before intimated, may undoubtedly be more or less advantageous, according to the skill and judgement of the instructer; as would also be the case in any branch of study.

The practice of the greatest masters of languages has been conformable to these views. It will be sufficient for our present purpose, to refer to the method recommended by that illustrious scholar, Sir William Jones, in the study of the Persian language. 'When the student,' says he, 'can read the character with fluency, and has learned the true pronunciation of them from the mouth of a native, *let him peruse the grammar with attention, and commit to memory the regular inflections of the nouns and the verbs;* he need not burden his mind with those that deviate from the common form, as they will be insensibly learned in a short course of reading.'* The same method, substantially, was recommended in the study of Latin, so long ago as the time of old Lily, whom Erasmus praises for 'his uncommon knowledge of the languages, and admirable skill in the instruction of youth,' and whose old grammar is yet quite as good, in the hands of a competent instructer, as any which have succeeded it. In the preface to that grammar, from which some of our masters might profit at this day, the author says, with a little quaintness, but much good sense; 'It is profitable, not only that he (the pupil) can orderly decline his noune and his verbe, but every way, forward, backward, by cases, by persons; that neither case of noune, ne person of verbe can be required that hee cannot without stoppe or studie tell. And unto this time I count not the schollar perfect, nor readie to go any further, till he hath this already learned. This when he can perfectly doe, and hath learned every part, not by rote but by reason, and is cunninger in the understanding of the thing, than in rehearsing of the words, (which is not past a quarter of a yeare's dilligence, or very little more, to a painefull and dilligent man, if the schollar have a meane witte).

* Preface to his Persian Grammar, p. 14.

then let him passe to the concordes to know the agreement of parties among themselves, with like way and diligence as is afore described.'

We have extended these remarks further, perhaps, than the subject before us demanded, because we have observed opinions promulgated in some publications of the present day, which we believe to be of erroneous tendency in regard to certain fundamental principles of education, as well as the practical mode of applying them. There can be no doubt, that the knowledge of *particulars*, to speak in scholastic language, is the most exact and thorough; but, it is equally certain, that as this sort of knowledge in all our necessary studies is beyond the grasp of man, we must content ourselves with that approximation to it, which consists in the knowledge of *generals*.

The two works at the head of this article have come under our notice, not from any decided superiority which they possess over many others of the kind, but because they may be considered as fair specimens of two different *plans of grammar* for the Greek Language, and because they have been respectively recommended by the two most distinguished seminaries of learning in our country.

The first of them, the *Gloucester Greek Grammar*, was adopted by the University of Cambridge in the year 1799, when that institution had at its head the excellent and much valued President Willard, a man, who, to real ardor in the general cause of learning, united no small share of practical talent in the application of his acquisitions in science. We make this remark with the less hesitation, because we have heard, that the most distinguished astronomer in our country has spoken of his philosophical papers, published in the Memoirs of the American Academy, as being among the first, for practical utility, in the whole of that collection. It is well known, too, that President Willard long enjoyed the reputation of being a sound Greek scholar; and we have heard, that he had projected an improved Greek Grammar, to be published in *English*, many years before grammars in our own tongue were in use among us, but which, probably, his unaffected modesty prevented him from publishing, after the grammar now before us became known in this country.

Under his presidency, as we have observed, the Gloucester Greek Grammar was adopted by the University, and official notice was given by the Faculty, that after the commencement of that year, 1799, 'no student *would be permitted* at the classical exercises to use any other grammar.' In their recommendation of this work, and of Adam's Latin Grammar, which was adopted at the same time, they say, that the 'University of Cambridge, for several years past, has suffered much inconvenience, and the interests of

letters no small detriment, from the variety of Latin and Greek Grammars used by the students, in consequence of that diversity to which, under different instructers, they have been accustomed in their preparatory course;' and they add, that in order 'to promote, so far as may be, the cause of literature, by preventing those evils in future, the government of the University, on due consideration of the subject, has thought it expedient to request all instructers of youth who may resort to Cambridge for education, to adopt *Adam's Latin Grammar* and the *Gloucester Greek Grammar*, with reference to such pupils, as books singularly calculated for the improvement of students in these languages.'

A recommendation from so high authority had its full effect; and the two grammars immediately came into general use. The *Latin* Grammar still seems to enjoy undiminished favor; and the improved edition, which is now published by the respected Principal of that distinguished seminary, the Boston Latin School, will no doubt establish it still more strongly in the public estimation. The *Greek* Grammar, on the contrary, while it appears to maintain its ground in other parts of our country, (the edition before us is a New-York one,) has lost somewhat of its popularity, as we are informed, though we hope this is not the fact, even within that University, which only a few years ago selected it from the multitude then published, as an elementary work, 'singularly calculated for the improvement of students,' and with which these students would be 'required to form a radical and intimate acquaintance.' We suppose, however, that the other Greek Grammars, which now find access to the university, are rather permitted than recommended; for, as we understand, the original recommendation of the Gloucester Grammar has never been officially recalled by the government of the institution.

If we knew the reasons why other Greek Grammars are tolerated in the university, they might possibly be of such a nature as to preclude all discussion by the public; but as we are not informed of them, we may be allowed to conjecture; and we do, in truth, suppose it may have happened, not from any dissatisfaction with the original choice of a grammar, but from that cautious reserve, which was shown in the recommendation, that the university had no wish 'to dictate;' a motive, which, to a certain extent, must approve itself to all, who duly consider the effect, which any attempt 'to dictate' would naturally produce in a community like ours.

Taking it for granted, therefore, that we are not opposing any settled opinion, much less any decision of those, who direct the affairs of the university, and considering it as a subject in which the public have a deep interest, we shall ask the attention of our rea-

ders to the merits of the two methods or systems of grammar, of which the works before us are specimens; and, at the same time, to the more general question, how far it is expedient, particularly in the circumstances of our country, to make frequent changes in books of instruction.

We have observed, that the two grammars before us had not attracted our notice on account of any marked superiority over many others; and we presume, that one principal reason why the *Gloucester* Grammar was originally selected by the University, was its being written in English. This circumstance alone would certainly have entitled it to the preference over others, which were then in use; for, besides facilitating the progress of boys, who were going on in the usual course, it would enable such as were disposed, to *begin* their classical studies with Greek instead of Latin; a method, which has the decided approbation of many eminent scholars in Europe, who have been practically acquainted with the business of instructing youth.* Since that period, however, several other Greek grammars have been published in English; among which the best known are *Bell's Compendious Grammar*, constructed upon the *ancient* plan, and *Valpy's*, upon the *modern* or reformed plan. We might also add *Jones's Philosophical Grammar*, which, like his *Latin* one, exhibits many views of great interest and utility to the advanced scholar, but is not likely to find its way into schools. *Bell's* Grammar is a valuable one, and is honorably noticed by Dr. Valpy himself, in the preface to his own; but though it has gone through many editions in England, more, we believe, than Valpy's, it has not been used, so far as we are informed, in this country; while there have been several editions of *Valpy's*, within the short period that the work has been known among us. This last, indeed, was for a time the only competitor with the Gloucester Grammar for public favor; but, more lately, the second work at the head of our article, commonly called *Hachenberg's*, has been published under the patronage of the flourishing College at New-Haven, and now

* This question is of so great importance in a classical education, that we cannot forbear adding in this place, the strong and decisive testimony of *Wyttenbach*, who has been called by English writers 'the first scholar on the continent for comprehensive and profound erudition,' and who formed his opinion after the experience of more than twenty years as an instructer. 'Within a little time,' says he, in his interesting and affectionate address to his pupils, 'you shall understand the Greek, with as much ease as you now do the Latin writers; and, indeed, unless you accomplish as much as that, it will hardly have been worth your while to have gone through the labor you have done. You might, indeed, have arrived at that point already, and have possessed a more extensive and accurate knowledge of Latin, *if you had begun the studies of your childhood with Greek instead of Latin*. But, that this method will be generally adopted, is what I dare not hope, though I ardently wish for it.' *Selecta Princip. Histor. Præf.* p. xxiv. The opinions of many other scholars, to the same effect, might be adduced, if the occasion authorised it.

enjoys at least an equal share of the public favor with Valpy's; and, in one particular, the syntax, it is certainly entitled to the preference. Not long after Hachenberg's was first printed here, another, constructed also upon the *modern* plan, yet not without some deviations from it, was published; we allude to the well known Grammar of *Buttmann*, recently translated by the distinguished scholar, who lately filled the chair of one of the professorships at Cambridge. This work, however, has not yet found admission into our schools. Whether this has happened, as the learned translator feared might be the case, in consequence of its being 'somewhat in advance of the state of philological studies in this country,' or from some other cause, we will not undertake to decide. With the view, however, of bringing it into use, a very concise *Abridgement* of it has been just published by a well known and ardent scholar, who has already done honor to his country, and is destined, as we trust, in conjunction with his able associate, to confer benefits upon it, whose effects will long be felt. This abridgement is well executed, as might be expected from its author; but we shall have a remark to make in another part of this article, on the subject of keeping boys to the *same book*, through every stage of their classical studies, instead of beginning with abridgements, and then proceeding to larger works.

Besides the republications of English and German Grammars above enumerated, our own country has furnished two, and possibly *more original* works of this kind, though we have seen but two. The first of them was published in the year 1796, at Worcester in this state, by Mr. Caleb Alexander, under the title of '*A Grammatical System of the Grecian Language.*' This work is neither wholly conformable to the modern nor the ancient plan of arrangement; for the author adopts four conjugations of the barytone, and three of the contracted verbs; and in the nouns, while he makes but three declensions of the *Simples*, he makes *five* of the Contracts, agreeably to a classification of them in Milner's Greek Grammar, which was published in England in the year 1740, and was, we believe, the first ever written in the English language. Mr. Alexander's grammar certainly possesses considerable merit, especially when we consider the little zeal for Greek studies at the time when it was published. The other American grammar, to which we have alluded, is that of Professor Smith, of Dartmouth College, published in the year 1809, upon the *modern* plan, and containing a good deal of useful matter, which at that period was not so much within the reach of students as it is at this day.

From this brief account of the various Greek grammars, which have been published here within the short period since the University first recommended the Gloucester Grammar, we fear there is

but a faint prospect of an effectual remedy for the 'evils,' as they were justly called, which prompted that recommendation; and, that 'the interest of letters' is yet destined to 'suffer no small detriment from the variety of grammars;' which, in truth, succeed each other with a rapidity that bids defiance to the talents and industry of those teachers, who endeavor to keep pace with them. For an instructer, (who, if he would bestow his labor to the most advantage, ought to have a knowledge of his elementary books, that may be termed mechanical,) scarcely has an opportunity of making himself thus familiarly acquainted with any one grammar, before he is compelled to throw away all his labor, and betake himself to the study of some new work. How many more we shall have in the next five and twenty years, it is impossible to foresee; but if that period should be as prolific as the last, and there is little hope that it will be less so, we shall very often see the existing materials wrought over again, sometimes according to old patterns, and sometimes according to new—

> Multa renascentur quæ jam cecidêre; cadentque
> Quæ nunc sunt in honore—

Nor do we perceive any remedy for this 'evil,' unless the University, with the cooperation of the principal seminaries of learning in the country, shall, after careful deliberation, make a selection of some one grammar, and resolutely adhere to their choice. In this event, if they should not still approve of the work to which they originally gave currency, they might either fix upon some other among those which are already in use, or might make an improved one of their own; and, fortunately, they have in their Greek Department one of the most profound scholars of the country, who could easily perform that task in a manner, which would be honorable to the University and to the nation. Upon what principles the selection of an elementary work of this kind should be made, with the greatest advantage to the literature of a country circumstanced like our own, is happily not for us to decide; but, as we have given some attention to the subject, and have formed an opinion upon it, we may, before a decision is made by the competent authorities, venture to state some of the grounds of that opinion.

(To be concluded in our next.)

The Pronouncing Bible, containing the Old and New Testaments; the Proper Names of which, and numerous other Words, being accurately Accented in the Text, and divided into Syllables, as they ought to be pronounced according to the Orthoepy of John Walker, as contained in his Critical Pronouncing Dictionary, and Key to the Classical Pronunciation of Greek, Latin, and Scripture, Proper Names. By Israel Alger junr., A. M. Boston, 1825.

Any one who has attended to the progress of improvement in schools and other seminaries in some parts of this country, must have observed the revolution which is taking place in pronunciation, and the opposition which this change has to encounter. From an utter neglect of this branch of common education, some instructers have passed to an earnest and anxious attention to it; and, instead of cavilling at Walker's rules of orthoepy, are exerting themselves to produce and perfect a pronunciation founded on his principles. Other teachers, however, entertain a different opinion as to the propriety of a strict assimilation of our orthoepy to that of Walker; and not a few object peremptorily to the introduction of his system at all.

A due attention to the subject would perhaps discover errors in the views and statements of those who hold to opposite extremes in this question. Both the admirers and the opponents of Walker, in this country, have misunderstood him in many things; and it is not surprising that this should be the case. There are two very sufficient reasons why that author's system should not be perfectly intelligible here in some of its minuter points. Few of our citizens have the opportunity of personally ascertaining the existing state of pronunciation in England. Now Walker's notation of orthoepy often turns on a mere nicety in the current manner of pronouncing. For though he has, in some things, his own peculiar views in which he is not followed by many of the most distinguished speakers, nor even by the British community at large; yet his leading object was to ascertain and exhibit the law of good custom.*

In some particulars of this kind, we, in this country, cannot understand him so easily; because they depend often on those minute and evanescent efforts of enunciation, which can be caught only by

* The question as to the merits of Walker's orthoepy cannot be properly decided without adverting to the fact implied in the title page of his Dictionary. His work is a '*Critical*' pronouncing dictionary: it was designed to afford room for private opinion and taste, and for the introduction of what seemed to be improvement, along with the necessary statement of the best fashion of the day. In some points of Walker's system, therefore, we are to recognise the suggestions of an individual, but in most, the usage and therefore the law of English pronunciation.

the ear; and which no ingenuity can render palpable to the eye, through the medium of the English alphabet, after all the aid which can be derived from numbering, and marking, and accenting every letter. Many ingenious reasons are given for following or for abandoning Walker in some cases of this sort. But the reasoners on both sides forget that they are disputing about what is not a subject of argumentation, but a question of fact and of custom.

To select an instance: Walker lays it down as a rule that the letter *e* in such words as *term*, *mercy*, &c. should not be pronounced in that coarse and careless manner which converts *e* into *u* and gives *turm* and *murcy* for the orthoepy of these words. The letter *e* in these and similar words, is accordingly marked in the Pronouncing Dictionary like the same letter in the words *merit*, *very*, &c; because the English language affords no better means of an ocular representation of the true sound. Teachers who follow Walker's book literally, fall very naturally, therefore, into the error of inculcating, in this instance, a pronunciation which characterises the Scotch, the Irish, the French, the Germans, and other nations, but not the English. The sound which Walker meant to recommend in this case, though it inclines comparatively to the latter, is not to be confounded with it any more than with the former. Yet, in public reading, in this country, it is commonly the one or the other of these that is adopted.

Another example is furnished in the vowel *i* in the words *time*, *life*, &c. Mr. Walker has, with his usual good taste, objected to that pronunciation of this letter which would make it seem to be a dipthong commencing with the broad sound of *a*. Some American instructers have therefore run to the opposite extreme of commencing the sound of this letter in a manner which produces the peculiar *i* of the Scotch and Irish; whilst others who regard such pronunciation as affected, leave their pupils to adopt the vulgarism against which Walker has protested.

Another obstacle to a perfect understanding of Walker, is the difficulty which we have just mentioned of contriving any method by which we may regulate the voice through the medium of the eye, whilst the natural channel of communication, in this case, is the ear. The instance already given might serve for an illustration here; but we prefer selecting one which has excited an equal share of indignation among some of our critics, and perplexity among some of our teachers. We allude to the sound of *ai* and *ay* in syllables in which they constitute an oral dipthong. The orthoepy of the words *fair*, *prayer*, &c, is unavoidably so expressed as to produce, with those who follow strictly the guidance of the eye, an impression that these words are to be pronounced in a manner which would justly subject a person to the penalty of being thought

affected. Such precision in pronouncing is sometimes introduced, for the purpose of ridicule, on the stage; but this very circumstance serves to show that to pronounce with that labored affectation of accuracy or of extraordinary refinement, is to offend the good sense and the taste of society.

Unfortunately, some teachers in this country who have understood Walker as requiring that manner of pronouncing, and have felt disgusted with what was so offensive to their ear, are disposed to tolerate the obsolete pronunciation of these dipthongs, which is but a shade better than the antiquated vulgarisms of *fâr* and *prâr*, (for *fair* and *prayer*,) sounds, which though they may be associated with the idea of rude grandeur, when they drop from the lips of the rugged woodsman of the southwest, can hardly be proposed for imitation in refined society or in school.

Walker's orthoepy, was founded on the usage of good society, and of esteemed public speakers; and that author would have shrunk from a literal copy of either of the above extremes. He would, in short, have given, (if asked to do it orally,) that chaste sound of these dipthongs which is current among well bred people on his side the Atlantic; but which no selection or arrangement of letters can convey exactly to the eye.

The author of the Pronouncing Bible has not, we are happy to observe, attempted any wide deviation from Walker. He has followed the orthoepy of that writer, and has left to the teacher the office of communicating the proper oral expression of what is merely laid before the eye in the most accurate way which circumstances will permit; but which can be perfectly acquired, through no other medium than the ear, or the living voice. In this arrangement Mr. Alger has, we believe, the sense of the community in his favor. To maintain a pure style of vernacular pronunciation in the United States, an approximation to a standard seems equally necessary and desirable. The partial and gradual mutations which are constantly taking place in the pronunciation of British society, we are too far off to acquire by any species of transmission sufficiently rapid and diffusive. We are left then to a choice between those local peculiarities which will accumulate everywhere into wide differences, (not to say uncouth and deplorable errors) and the partial if not full adoption of an acknowledged and permanent standard. That the latter course is the preferable one, needs no demonstration to persons of taste. When we reflect, however, on the multitude of minds and of tastes which are concerned in any national measure, it will not seem wonderful that, while the people of the United States are disposed, generally speaking, to adopt Walker's orthoepy, their adherence to it is not perfectly uniform. Due weight must be allowed to the difficulty arising from

such misconceptions as we have already mentioned, and from even the most rational attempts to effect alterations in what is everywhere held to be a criterion of good sense, and sometimes even of moral propriety, and where the apparent instability resulting from a change, is apt to seem absurd, if not contemptible.

We have indulged these wide views of this subject, from our conviction that the Pronouncing Bible is a work destined to effect an extensive improvement in its sphere. That its merits render it worthy of the career of usefulness for which it is designed, no one, we think, will doubt, who has perused it.

There is, as far as we know, no work with which this can be compared, except Brown's Testament—the first book of the kind, perhaps, in which any attempt was made to facilitate a correct style of scriptural reading in families and schools. The improvement in that work, however, extended no farther than to a selection of the most difficult words in every chapter, arranged over it, in the dictionary form. Mr. Alger's method is vastly superior: it extends to every word in which it would seem that a mispronunciation could possibly be made. This idea is, we think, a happy one; for many errors in common reading are those which the reader is accustomed to make in conversation, and which habit leads him to transfer to his style of reading. If, in these circumstances, his book affords him no guidance or correction but in the more difficult words, he is still liable to numberless inaccuracies which he has never suspected. The Pronouncing Bible will prove a radical cure of such evils. It hems the careless reader in on every side, and leaves him no opportunity of wandering off into error. This work will perhaps do more than has been effected by all the *dictionaries* heretofore published, to produce throughout the United States, a uniform and chaste pronunciation of the English language.

A brief but well constructed explanatory key renders the whole orthoepy perfectly intelligible. A preference in marking the pronunciation of words is very justly given to accents and marks over figures; the former being susceptible of a much more minute and satisfactory application.

We cannot close our remarks, without expressing our satisfaction with the accurate and neat style in which the work is executed. As far as regards this very desirable point, the editor and the publishers have truly succeeded in making their work 'worthy of the confidence and patronage of the public.' The labor undergone in this publication has been great; and we have no doubt that it will be amply repaid by an extensive adoption of the work in families and schools.

STRICTURES ON MURRAY'S GRAMMAR.

[The following strictures on Murray's Grammar will perhaps be found to present views which differ very widely from those of some of our readers. There can be, however, but little diversity of opinion on several of the points which the writer of this article has so ingeniously and clearly laid down. The whole communication furnishes no ordinary quantity of matter suited to the purposes of oral instruction and explanation; and in this light we recommend it to the attentive consideration of those of our readers who, in communicating knowledge to the young, are unwilling to be bound to a tame acquiescence in the opinions of others; no matter how distinguished the names which may have afforded a sanction or a screen to error.]

"It appears to me that nothing but prejudice or affectation could have prompted our English Grammarians to desert the simple structure of their own language, and wantonly perplex it with technical terms for things not existing in the language itself."

Dr. Crombie's Grammar.

It must be apparent to every observer, that, while not only the mode of teaching other branches of knowledge, but also the text books used, have become more rational, practical, and simple, still the subject of *grammar* remains almost untouched. It is true, that since the days of Lowth, who was the pattern of Murray, various authors have written and published *improved* grammars, but these have been mere commentaries upon their predecessors. The followers of Murray in this country, (and we have the books of thirty before us,) have been careful to preserve nearly all his peculiarities, contenting themselves with making a different arrangement of them, and attempting a clearer illustration of his errors. The subject of English Grammar is as much in the dark as ever; and the innumerable commentaries upon Murray have answered no valuable purpose, except to convince the unbiased that there is a want of simplicity in the text, or the comments and illustrations would be unnecessary.

In the United States, Murray's Grammar, under one form or another, is universally used; and so satisfied is the public mind of its perfection, that an attempt to check its progress will be viewed as a desperate adventure. It may be so, but more desperate adventures have succeeded, and no effort, however humble, to check the progress of error, can be entirely without effect. It was the few

seeds of truth, scattered just before the reformation of Luther, which finally took root and overspread the earth.

Let it not be supposed that a more rational system of grammar than that which prevails, has never been attempted, or that we claim any merit on the score of discovery. Numerous distinguished philologers, at the head of whom is Horne Tooke, have in their elaborate works proved that the prevalent system of English Grammar has no adaptation to that language. These works, however, are but little known in this country, and so far as they affect the mode of teaching are a dead letter. We shall freely draw upon them for ideas and arguments, acknowledging once for all our obligations to them, and expressing our astonishment that when such truly great minds have protested against the foreign rack on which our simple language has been stretched, no effort has been made by its friends, who must have been acquainted with the fact, to rescue it from its uneasy situation.

Dr. Lowth, in the preface to his grammar says "The English language is perhaps of all the present European languages by much the most simple in its form and construction," again, "a grammatical study of our own language makes no part of the ordinary method of instruction, which we pass through in our childhood," and again, after mentioning the insufficiency of various helps to enable us to form a good English style, he observes, "much less then will what is commonly called *learning* serve the purpose; that is, a critical knowledge of ancient languages and much reading of ancient authors. The greatest critic and most able grammarian of the last age, when he came to apply his learning and criticism to an English author, was frequently at a loss in matters of ordinary use, and common construction in his own *vernacular idiom*." Finally after stating that the first design of grammar is "to teach us to express ourselves with propriety," he adds, "but there is a secondary use to which it may be applied and which I think is not attended to as it deserves, viz. the facilitating of the acquisition of other languages, whether ancient or modern." Then, after asserting that the study of English Grammar is a great preparation for the study of the Latin Grammar, he makes the important confession "a design, somewhat of this kind, gave occasion to the following little system intended merely for a private and domestic use."

We make these extracts because the English Grammar of the distinguished Latin scholar who wrote them, was the basis of Murray's system, for the latter only refined a little upon the other's speculations. We gather therefore from the extracts, that English Grammar then formed no part of an English education; that Lowth's grammar was not intended for a school book, but for private use; that a *learned* man, that is a Latin and a Greek scholar,

was not the proper person to make an English Grammar; that, of course, Dr. Lowth was disqualified; and lastly, that, as one very important design in making the English Grammar was to introduce the pupil to Latin Grammar, it is but fair to presume that the English Grammar was made as much like the Latin as it was possible to make it.

The utility of English Grammar (Murray's system) as an introduction to Latin Grammar is a favorite argument for its continuance even at the present day, and it is but a year or two since a distinguished classical scholar, then one of the Boston school committee, when asked why a more philosophical, or I should say, *a more English* grammar was not introduced into the public schools, replied, that the improvement proposed was valuable, but Murray's grammar in consequence of its numerous moods and tenses, was a better preparation for Latin. At that time about one in a thousand of the children in the English grammar schools expected to study Latin. So that 999 were, and *are* obliged to study a great deal of useless, and worse than useless matter, that *one* may be in a very trifling degree prepared for learning Latin. *Our* classical knowledge will not disqualify *us* from judging of the requisites to form a proper English Grammar; and, taking Murray for our text, we shall endeavor in our next essay to show that he has departed from the true idiom of our language, in many essential points.

INTELLIGENCE

SCHOOLS IN MAINE.

We copy from the American Patriot, published at Portland, the following abstract of the returns made under a late act of the State of Maine, by the Selectmen of towns and Assessors of plantations, exhibiting the number of school districts in the State, the number of children, and the number who attend school, with the amount paid for the support of schools. We have long thought that an annual return of this sort, presenting perhaps some particulars in addition to those here stated, would be of great service in this State. By exhibiting as far as practicable, to the legislature and to the public, the state of the schools, it would facilitate those measures of improvement, which all should be anxious to adopt; and by making known to the public the efforts made by each town to place their schools on a respectable footing, it would tend to produce an emulation which might lead to the most useful results.

Schools.—From an examination of the returns made to the office of the Secretary of State, pusuant to 'An Act in addition to an Act to provide for the Education of Youth,' passed February 25, 1825, we have drawn the following facts, which are both curious and important.

County of York.

School Districts,	297
Children between 4 and 21 years,	20,810
Number who usually attend School,	14,202
Amount raised and expended for Schools,	$ 20,065 85
Of this sum, there is raised from funds,	$ 229 83

County of Cumberland.

School Districts,	323
Children between 4 and 21 years,	19,154
Number who usually attend School,	13,080
Amount raised and expended for Schools,	$ 22,126 71
Of this sum there is raised from funds,	$ 1,520 06

The town of Portland did not return the number of children between 4 and 21 years of age.

The towns of Brunswick, Gray and New Gloucester, made no return of the children, who usually attend schools.

County of Lincoln.

School Districts,	388
Children between 4 and 21 years,	24,760
Number who usually attend School,	17,540
Amount raised and expended for Schools,	$ 23,207 02
Of this sum, there is raised from funds,	$ 402 00

No return from Patrickton Plantation.

County of Hancock.

School Districts,	275
Children between 4 and 21 years,	14,678
Number who usually attend School,	10,499
Amount raised and expended for Schools,	$ 13,642 74
Of this sum, there is raised from funds,	$ 467 60

No returns from Brooksville, Knox and Orland,

County of Washington.

School Districts,	83
Children between 4 and 21 years,	5,009
Number who usually attend School,	3,446
Amount raised and expended for Schools,	$ 5,626 85
Of this sum there is raised from funds,	$ 206 20

No returns from Charlotte, Machias, Robbinston, and No. 14.

County of Kennebec.

School Districts,	358
Children between 4 and 21 years,	19,625
Number who usually attend School,	14,522
Amount raised and expended for Schools,	$ 19,109 16
Of this sum there is raised from funds,	$ 330 45

No return from Temple,

Readfield and Waterville made no return of the number of children who usually attend schools.

County of Oxford.

School Districts,	290
Children between 4 and 21 years,	12,936
Number who usually attend School,	10,217
Amount raised and expended for Schools,	$ 11,381 26
Of this sum there is raised from funds,	$ 1,294 21

Andover did not return the number of children who usually attend schools.

County of Somerset.

School Districts,	258

Children between 4 and 21 years,	10,706
Number who usually attend School,	7,551
Amount raised and expended for Schools,	$ 10,225 62
Of this sum, there is raised from funds,	$ 241 11

No returns from Palmyra, Corinna, Phillips and No. 7, 7th Range.

County of Penobscot.

School Districts,	147
Children between 4 and 21 years,	7,666
Number who usually attend School,	6,180
Amount raised and expended for Schools,	$ 9,114 97
Of this sum, there is raised from funds,	$ 221 20

No returns from Brownville and Orono.

Plantation No. 7, 7th Range, No. 2, 2d Range, East of Penobscot River and Jarvis' Gore, made no returns of the number of children who usually attend schools.

From the above Statement it appears that there are in this State,

School Districts,	2,419
Children between 4 and 21 years,	135,344
Number who usually attend Schools,	97,237
Amount raised and expended for Schools,	$ 135,100 18
Of this sum, there is raised from funds,	$ 4,932 66

There is annually raised in this State, then, nearly one dollar a head for every child between 4 and 21 years, and appropriated for the purposes of education. Averaged upon those, who usually attend schools, it amounts to *one dollar thirty nine cents nearly*, for each scholar. How insignificant a sum, when put in comparison with the invaluable blessings which flow from its expenditure! There is much reason to exult in the thought, that ninety-seven thousand children are annually trained up to knowledge and usefulness, to be the bone and sinew of the body politic, at an expense too, so little felt, as to seem like a boon from some unseen hand.

Besides the public schools, enumerated in the foregoing statement, there are in Maine twenty-one incorporated Academies, four of which have been endowed, in addition to funds derived from private sources, by the grant of a township of land, and seventeen by a grant of half a township. There are besides six incorporated female academies, two of which only are in operation. Two of them have received at the present session, a grant of a half township of land. *Boston Adv.*

TRANSYLVANIA UNIVERSITY.

Extract from the Report of the Trustees, in answer to the Resolutions of the Assembly, requiring information.

1. 'The salary and other emoluments of the President, derived from private lectures or classes, signing diplomas, and the fee charged for each.'

The President has no private class. His salary is $3000 in currency, equivalent at this time to $2000 in specie. He charges a fee of five dollars in currency, for signing the diplomas of the Bachelors and Masters of Arts. The income from this source, during the last session, was $215 in currency, or $107 50 in specie.

2. 'The salaries and emoluments of the other Professors, and how paid, whether in specie or paper currency.'

Professor Roche has $1200 in currency; Professor Matthews $1200 in specie; and Professor Chapman $600 in currency.—Each of the Medical Professors has twenty dollars in currency for his ticket, and five dollars in currency for signing the diplomas of the Medical Graduates.

4. 'The number of diplomas granted by the institution within the two last years, designating the number granted in each year.'

During the year ending in July 1825, the University conferred 32 degrees of Bachelor of Arts; 21 of Master of Arts; 16 of Bachelor of Laws; 57 of Doctor of Medicine, and 2 of Doctor of Laws; thus making an aggregate of 128.

During the year ending in July 1824, the University conferred 24 degrees of Bachelor of Arts; 18 of Master of Arts; 16 of Bachelor of Laws; 47 of Doctor of Medicine; 2 of Doctor of Divinity, and 2 of Doctor of Laws; making a total of 109.

5. 'The present number of students in the University, designating separately the Medical and Law students, and those in the Grammar School and College.'

The Law School is suspended for the present session, to be revived the next. —The medical class contains 272; the senior class, 38; the junior class, 24; the sophomore class, 12; the freshman class, 17, and the preparatory department 40; making an aggregate of 403. Of these, the four college classes contain 91.

For the employment of the President and the Academical Professors, see his report to the board at a late meeting. Each Medical Professor lectures every day to the class for an hour. The Principal of the Preparatory Department is in his School from six to seven hours. Dr. Blythe lectures to the seniors three times a week on chemistry.

At a meeting of the trustees of Transylvania University, 23d Sept. 1825:

Resolved, That the Clerk request the President to report to the Board, at their next meeting, the time that each Professor devotes to the recitation rooms.

At a meeting 3d Oct. 1825, Mr. Holly reported as follows, viz:

Agreeably to the request of the Board of Trustees of Transylvania University, at their meeting Sept. 23, 1824, the President makes the following report, concerning the labors of the several instructers in the academical department.

The President, from 9 to 10 o'clock, A. M and from 12 to 1, P. M. attends the seniors daily, giving a course of instruction in Philology, Rhetoric, Logic, Ethics, mental Philosophy and Political Economy. From 10 to 12, he goes through a course of regular criticism, with his pen in his hand, and in company with the writers in succession, upon the themes and forensics which are prepared by the seniors.

A portion of this period is also devoted to students, for all the objects of complaint, advice, expostulation, and the general business of order and discipline, as well as to the reception of strangers, and the requisite information which they seek, when they visit the institution with their sons or their friends. It is still further employed by the President, to visit according to law, the recitation and lecture rooms of the teachers and professors, and to suggest any improvements that may be made, as well as to obtain a personal knowledge of the condition of all the departments.

From 12 to 1 on Fridays, he attends to the private declamation of the two upper classes, and from 10 to 11 on Saturdays, to their public declamation.

As has been done heretofore in some of the sessions, the President designs to give, from 11 to 12 on Saturdays, during the present season, a course of lectures on manners and morals, in the chapel. At this time the President is employed one hour each day, in hearing a course of recitations from one of the classes in Latin; though this is an extra duty, which he will assign to some one else, as soon as circumstances will permit.

Professor Roche, from 9 to 10, hears a recitation by the juniors; from 10 to 11, a recitation by the sophomores; from 11 to 12, a second recitation by the juniors; from 12 to 1 a recitation by the freshmen, and from 1 to 2, a second recitation by the sophomores. In this manner he goes through with the prescribed course of Greek and Latin, with the exception of Horace, which is taken by the President. The Professor also criticises, at his room, the Greek and Latin exercises of the classes.

Professor Matthews, from 9 to 10, hears a recitation by the freshmen; from 10 to 11, a recitation by the juniors; from 11 to 12, a recitation by the seniors, and from 12 to 1, by the sophomores. He also delivers lectures on the subjects of his professorship, twice a week.

Professor Chapman, from 9 to 10, hears the sophomores; from 10 to 11, the seniors; from 11 to 12, the freshmen; and from 12 to 1, the juniors.

The labors of Professor Roche are unreasonably great. Justice and policy require that they should be lessened, as soon as the circumstances of the University will allow a division of his professorship.

[Dr. Holly has recently resigned the presidency of the Transylvania University; having accepted that of the University of Louisiana.]

INFLUENCE OF INFANT SCHOOLS.

The Boy and the Song.

One day while I was walking in the play ground, I saw at one end of it about twenty children, apparently arguing a subject, pro. and con.; from the attitude of several of the orators, I judged it was about something that appeared to them of considerable importance. I wished to know the subject of debate, but was satisfied, that if I approached the children it might put an end to the matter altogether. Some of the bystanders saw me looking very attentively at the principal actor, and, as I suppose, suggested to the party the propriety of retiring to some other spot, for immediately afterwards they all retired behind a partition, which afforded me an opportunity of distinctly hearing all that passed, without being observed by them. I soon found that the subject of debate was a *song*. It seems that one of the children had brought a song to the school, and some of the monitors had read it, and afterwards decided that it was an improper thing for the child to have in his possession, and one of them had taken it from the owner, and destroyed it; the aggrieved party had complained to some of the other children, who said that it was *thieving* for one child to take any thing from another child, without his consent. The boy, nettled at being called a thief, defended himself by saying that he, as a monitor, had a right to take away from any of his class any thing that was calculated to do them harm; and he, it seems, was backed in this opinion by many others. On the other hand, it was contended that no such right existed, and it was doubtful to me for a considerable time, on which side the strength of argument lay. At last one of the children observed to the following effect:—'You should have taken it to *master*, because he would know if it was bad better than you.' This was convincing argument, and, to my great delight, the boy replied—'How much did the song cost?' The reply was, 'a halfpenny.' 'Here, then, take it' says the child, 'I had one given me to day, so now remember I have paid you for it; but if you bring any more songs to school I will tell master.' This seemed to give general satisfaction to the whole party, who immediately dispersed to their several amusements. A struggle like this, between the principles of *duty and honesty*, among children so very young, must prove highly interesting to all lovers of children, and exemplifies, beyond a doubt, the immense advantages of early instruction.

Death bed and Funeral of an Infant Scholar.

The following anecdote will show how early impressions are made on the infant mind, and the effects such impressions have in the dying moments of a child. A little boy, between the age of five and six years, being extremely ill, prevailed on his mother to ask me to come and see him: the mother called, and stated, that he said he did want to see his master so bad, that he would give any thing if he could see him. The mother likewise said, she should be very much obliged to me if I would come: conceiving that the child would get better after he had seen me. I accordingly went, and on seeing the child, considered that he could not recover. The moment I entered the room, the child attempted to rise, but could not. 'Well, my little man,' said I, 'did you want to see me?' 'Yes, sir, I wanted to see you very much,' answered the child. 'Tell me what you wanted me for.' 'I wanted to tell you that I cannot come to school again, because I shall die.' 'Don't say that,' said the mother, 'you will get better, and then you

can go to school again.' 'No,' answered the child, 'I shall not get better, I am sure, and I wanted to ask master to let my class sing a hymn over my body, when they put me in the pit-hole.' The child having made me promise that this should be done, observed, 'you told me, master, when we used to say the pictures, that the souls of children never die, and do you think I shall go to God?' 'You ask me a difficult question, my little boy,' said I. 'Is it, sir,' says the child, 'I am not afraid to die, and I know I shall die.' 'Well, child, I should not be afraid to change states with you, for if such as you do not go to God, I do not know what will become of such as myself; and from what I know of you, I firmly believe that you will, and all like you; but you know what I used to tell you at school' 'Yes, sir, I do; you used to tell me that I should pray to God to assist me to do to others as I would that they should do to me, as the hymn says; and mother knows that I always said my prayers night and morning, and I used to pray for father and mother, master and governess, and every body else.' 'Yes, my little man, this is part of our duty; we should pray for every one, and I think if God sees it needful, he will answer our prayers, especially when they come from the heart.' Here the child attempted to speak, but could not, but waved his hand, in token of gratitude for my having called; and I can truly say, that I never saw so much confidence, resignation, and true dependence on the divine will, manifested by any grown person on a death bed, much less by a child, under the tender age of seven years. I bid the child adieu, and was much impressed with what I had seen. The next day the mother called on me, and informed me that the child had quitted his tenement of clay; and that just before his departure, he had said to her, and those around him, that the souls of children never die; it was only the body that died, that he had been told at school, while they were saying the pictures, that the soul went to God, who gave it. The mother said, that these were the last words the child was known to utter. She then repeated the request, about the children singing a hymn over his grave, and named the hymn she wished to have sung. The time arrived for the funeral, and the parents of the children who were to sing the hymn, made them very neat and clean, and sent them to school. I sent them to the house, whence the funeral was to proceed, and the undertaker sent word that he could not be troubled with such little creatures, and that unless I attended myself, the children could not go. I told him, I was confident that the children would be no trouble to him, if he only told them to follow the mourners, two and two, and that it was unnecessary for any one to interfere with them further, than showing them the way back to the school. I thought, however, that I would attend to see how the children behaved, but did not let them see me, until the corpse had arrived at the ground. As soon as I had got to the ground, some of the children saw me, and exclaimed, 'there's master;' and several of them stepped out of the ranks to favor me with a bow. When the corpse was put into the ground, the children were arranged around the grave, not one of whom was more than six years of age. One of them gave out the hymn, in the usual way, and then it was sung (according to the opinions of the by-standers) very well. The novelty of the thing caused a great number of persons to collect together; and yet, to their credit, while the children were singing, there was not a whisper to be heard; and when they had finished, the poor people made a collection for the children, on the ground.

[*Wilderspin's Infant Education.*

CHARITY SCHOOL OF ST. JOHN'S, SOUTHWARK, LONDON.

This school was established for the purpose of maintaining, instructing, clothing, qualifying for useful servants, and putting out to service, the female children of the industrious poor of the parish.

The school dates its existence from the year 1735, when, in consequence of the increasing population, this parish was taken out of the adjoining one of St. Olave: among the first acts of the inhabitants of the newly-established Parish, was the formation of a school similar in many respects to that which had, already, for

many ages existed in the mother parish; it provided for the instruction and clothing of a certain number of the female children of the parish, with a view to fit them for service when they arrived at the age for leaving the school; but there was one alteration made in the system of the then infant school, which the experience of now nearly one hundred years proves to the committee to have been most wise and beneficial, viz. the reception of a certain portion of the children so educated into the house, wholly to be maintained, constantly to be under the eye of a vigilant mistress, and the regulations of a domestic family. The obvious tendency of this arrangement is, besides the benefit afforded to the *parents*, by taking their child entirely off their hands, to secure to the *child* the full advantage of the instruction, to rescue her from an exposure to vice and temptation, (by which exposure at home, too frequently, all the good derived at school is lost,) and by the blessing of Providence to train her up in that moral and religious way from which when she is old she may not depart.

The accommodations of the school-house will allow eighteen children to be thus wholly received into it, and maintained; and though this number has for the last few years been necessarily reduced to fifteen, the present committee have now the pleasure to report that the full number will in a few weeks be put into the establishment, and they indulge the hope that long will be the time before that full number is again obliged to be curtailed. The number of children, therefore, now in the school is as follows:—Forty children educated and clothed, of whom eighteen, besides education and clothing, are wholly maintained. This number is certainly small when compared with the size of the parish, and much it is to be wished that more of the female population could derive the benefit of gratuitous instruction; happily, *females* are the only children for whom provision need be made, on account of the royal and munificent foundation of the grammar school of Queen Elizabeth, which not only holds out the advantage of a classical education to those whose parents are desirous that they should avail themselves of it, but extends to some hundreds of the children of a lower class of persons, that measure of useful learning which, were it not for the existence of this institution, the parishioners of St. John would, undoubtedly, feel the expediency of providing for them. [*From printed account of the School.*

MR. NOAH WEBSTER'S PROPOSED DICTIONARY.

The following paragraphs are extracted from Mr. Webster's recent letter to the public.

'As I have been preparing a Dictionary for publication, and have, for many years, been teased with the clamor about Walker; I have made a visit to England, and partly with a view to ascertain the real state of the language. I now know, what I before suspected, that no book whatever is considered and received in that country as a standard of orthoepy. There is no standard in England, except that pronunciation which prevails among respectable people, and this though tolerably uniform, is not precisely the same. Walker's scheme does not give this usage—it deviates from it as much as Sheridan's, and even more. There are whole classes of words, whose pronunciation, as marked by Walker, is not warranted by any respectable practice in England. I presume, I can select a thousand words, if not double the number, from Walker's Dictionary, marked for a pronunciation which no man would venture to use, in any decent society in that country. And what is more, I affirm that my own pronuciation, which was introduced into my book long before the name of Walker was known in this country, coincides more nearly with all the good practice which I witnessed in England, than Walker's—not that I agree in all respects with that practice, but the differences are few in number. If the people of this country *will* have an English book to follow, if nothing but *English* will answer, I would recommend Jones' Dictionary, for this pupose.—Jones is a later author, who seems to have followed Walker for the express purpose of correcting his errors—and his work, for the simplicity and consistency of his scheme, is far preferable to any other British publication.

I have been an attentive observer of the progress of orthoepy, for fifty years, and am satisfied that from Sheridan's first introduction of his Irish innovations, nearly sixty years ago, all efforts to establish a standard, have only served to *unsettle* the language, and *multiply* diversities.

A gentleman of distinction in the literary world, remarked to me in London, that if a convention of intelligent gentlemen were to meet and consult, for adjusting disputed points, it would be of no use, for no two men would think alike on the subject. *We* learn and *they* learn the language by tradition, and by associating with respectable people—and the force of this common usage cannot be resisted. In this country, it would be as difficult to bring all the people of the different states to agree to any given standard, as it would be to stretch them on the bed of Procrustes and reduce them all to the same length. Every schoolmaster wants his own book to be used, and thinks if he can introduce it into schools, the work is done—So little do these men know their own weakness—and the force of resistance to be overcome.

Do these men suppose that the people of this country will revive the antiquated orthography of such words as *music*, *public*, *rheumatic* &c. and write them *musick*, *publick*, *rheumatick*, because Johnson and Walker wrote them so half a century ago? Do they not know that this orthography has been discarded from the records of parliament, from the records and reports of law proceedings, from Encyclopedias; from periodical publications; from public prints and from the writings of most authors, in Great Britian, for forty or fifty years past? Do they not know that it has been discarded by Congress and the State legislatures, and the courts of law in this country—as well as by all or nearly all American authors? What can these men mean by sending us school-books with this obsolete orthography—an orthography always improper—and now held in disrepute? Even the few adherents to this practice among writers and printers in this country, have been mostly compelled, by the force of usage, to give up the contest. This is a triumph of good sense over pedantry; and a few more such triumphs will leave us our vernacular language in its purity.

My intercourse with the most respectable society, and a constant course of reading in the best authors for fifty years past, with the advantage of several months residence in England, and almost daily intercourse with many of the ablest scholars in the Kingdom, will enable me to present our vernacular language as it really exists, in the two countries, and I shall endeavor to do it with fidelity. Whatever is well executed in the English Dictionaries I shall receive, and give due credit to the authors: for, as Dr. Johnson said in a similar case, I would not usurp the honors of my predecessors. Whatever is deficient, I shall supply, as far as I am able, and what is palpably wrong, I shall correct

My Spelling Book, which has had an unparalled sale, and has, it is believed, had a very extensive effect in facilitating the acquisition of the language and in purifying the popular pronunciation from vulgarities—will be adjusted to a uniformity with the dictionary in pronunciation.

It was suggested to me, as early as the year 1784, by the late venerable Dr. Goodrich of Durham, that a Dictionary would be necessary to the completion of my plan. Through the goodness of a kind Providence, the work is now accomplished—with what success, it remains with my fellow-citizens to determine.'

LECTURES ON BOTANY.

Mr. Shepherd has commenced a course of Lectures on Botany, at the Pantheon, in this city.

NOTICES.

WORKS IN THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.

A Grammar of Chemistry, adapted to the use of Schools and private students, by familiar Illustrations and easy Experiments. By J. L. Comstock, M. D. With numerous Engravings on Wood. Second edition. Hartford, 1825. 12mo. pp. 240.

The rapid increase in the number of school-books like this, is a circumstance very propitious to the improvement of the rising generation. Nothing can so effectually promote the diffusion of useful science, or exert so direct and powerful an influence on the prosperity of the country.

After the highly favorable notices of this work in periodical publications which are strictly scientific, and which embrace among their contributors the most eminent men of our day, it would be superfluous labor for us to dilate upon its merits as a treatise on chemical science.

With regard however to the adaptation of the book to the purposes of instruction, we feel at liberty to express our opinion more fully; and we are happy to say that, in this respect, it is entitled to our best commendation. The questions for recapitulation are not thrust in at random, or purposely inserted in such a way that the pupil may be sure to have the answer in every instance before his eye, at the same time with the question: they are arranged with reference to the science of chemistry as such, and will enable the learner to arrange and embody his knowledge of the whole subject.

The vocabulary of terms will, we think, be very useful to young persons. But it would have been still more so, had it been more copious.

The Literary and Scientific Class-Book, embracing the leading Facts and Principles of Science: illustrated by Engravings, with many difficult words explained at the heads of the Lessons, and Questions annexed for Examination; designed as Exercises for the Reading and Study of the Higher Classes in Common Schools. Selected from the Rev. John Platts' Literary and Scientific Class-Book, and, from various other sources, and adapted to the wants and condition of Youth in the United States. By Levi W. Leonard. Keene, N. H. 1826. 12mo. pp. 318.

The Rev. Mr. Platt's Literary and Scientific Class-Book, which is the basis of the above work, is much valued in England; and Mr. Leonard has, we think, been very successful in adapting it to the use of schools in the United States.

School-books of this kind are valuable to the community, from the aid which they afford to the dissemination of useful knowledge among the whole people. But they have an immediate and subordinate value to the young, which is not so commonly appreciated: they tend more than any other class of books, to produce a natural and chaste style of reading. In class-books like this, the mind of the reader is fixed not so much on the words, as on the meaning; and his manner is accordingly divested of formality, and becomes a fair expression of the sense. But in works composed of pieces selected chiefly for their style, the result is very different. The nice turns of thought, and the delicate shades of expression, or perhaps even the rhetorical nerve and terseness of the composition, are sure to produce something of an artificial elocution.—This, however, is a point of inferior moment, and we will not dwell upon it.

The Literary and Scientific Class-Book is, we think, one of the most valuable school-books that has hitherto been published. It is a work which may accelerate improvement everywhere; but it promises to be peculiarly useful in towns and villages where there is not convenient access to extensive libraries.

Lessons in simultaneous Reading, Spelling, and Defining. By a Teacher. Portsmouth, 1826. 12mo. pp. 144.

The preface to this little volume contains several judicious and useful remarks, which seem to be the fruits of experience and attentive observation. From these we select the following, which will serve both to give a just character of the book, and to repeat sound views of elementary instruction.

'The evil consequences arising from the practice of compelling children to read what they do not understand, have led teachers to adopt one of the only two modes which have as yet been invented for avoiding them. They either place in the hands of their pupils books reduced to the level of their capacities; or the pupils are compelled to seek the definitions from the columns of the common dictionaries.—The design of the present volume is to unite the advantages of both these plans: the difficult words are rendered intelligible by the definitions—and by learning the definitions, the minds of the scholars are exercised, and their knowledge of language increased.

'The common mode of teaching the definition of words is also very objectionable; the pupil is obliged to commit to memory the definitions of a certain number of insulated and unconnected words in a dictionary; this is a mere exertion of the memory, and that it is a tedious, and often a most fruitless labor, both teachers and pupils we believe will concur in admitting; the difficulty grows out of the fact that by this exercise the association of ideas is not called in to the assistance of the memory: when the pupil strives to recover the evanescent idea, there are no circumstances with which it is connected, there is no *train of ideas* on which he can rely for assistance.

'The plan of the present work is to relieve the scholar from this difficulty; it presents the word to be defined in connection with others, and supplies a train of ideas with which the particular one may be associated.

In regard to Orthography, it occurs to the Compiler, as he thinks it must to every instructer of youth, that when a child is taught to spell words without knowing their meaning, it is a dry and laborious task; one which affords neither pleasure nor mental improvement to the scholar, and which requires to be often repeated without perceptible benefit. If, when the pupil is taught to spell a particular word, he is likewise taught to read and to define it, it would seem that he must retain a clearer idea of its orthography than when he has repeated it by rote from the columns of a spelling-book.'

The details of the author's plan are occasionally novel and ingenious; and—what is better—they are always practical and useful. The whole book possesses much merit.

We would suggest, that in future editions the word 'simultaneous' had better be dropped from the title page. It is not the proper term for the author's purpose. It implies that reading, spelling, and defining, are all going on at *the same instant of time;* or that all the pupils *unite orally* in their exercises. Neither of these meanings, however, is that which the author intends we should attach to the word. A slight change of phraseology would designate the true character and object of the book.

Blair's outlines of Chronology, Ancient and Modern; being an Introduction to the study of History. For the use of Schools. Hartford, 1825. 18mo. pp. 174.

This is a very instructive and interesting exhibition of chronology, and is intended, we observe, for the introduction to a series of elementary works on history, such as may be advantageously used by young learners. The whole se-

ries is to be chiefly original; though modelled on the plan of Blair, and designated by his name.

The compiler will, we hope, add to his list a volume on the United States, and one on the state of Connecticut.

A revised edition of the volume on chronology, is, we understand, in preparation.

Exempla Minora: or, New English Examples, to be rendered into Latin: adapted to the rules of Adam's Latin Grammar. For the Use of the Junior Classes, in the Grammar Schools in the United States. To which is added steps to Sense Verses; or, a set of Exercises, to be rendered into Latin Hexameters and Pentameters. Second edition. New-Haven, 1823 18mo. pp. 203.

One great obstacle to successful instruction in Latin composition in the schools of the United States, has been removed by this excellent manual.

In most schools for preparatory education, it was customary to employ a book of exercises adapted to the Grammars used in England; while the pupil was taught the elements of Latin, from the Grammar of Dr. Adam.

Much difficulty, and unnecessary expenditure of time, unavoidably resulted from this circumstance. The book before us is pretty carefully adapted to Adam's Grammar; and the pupil can now proceed intelligently to the composition of his exercises.

We mention this valuable little book, for the sake of such instructers as may not yet have adopted it. No elementary work of the same, or of a similar, character, can at present be found, better suited to initiate young learners in this important branch of classical education.

In the next edition the Index of Words will, we hope, be revised, and rendered more complete.

Elements of Arithmetic, by Question and Answer. Designed for the use of the Younger Classes in Public and Private Schools. By James Robinson, Jun. Second edition. Boston, 1824. 18mo. pp. 68.

These Elements are in so extensive use, that our opinion of them can have little influence good or bad. We think very favorably, however, of this school-book; and heartily wish it a still wider circulation.

In its present form, it embodies much valuable exercise. We wish it contained more that is purely mental. But, as many teachers would perhaps object to such an arrangement, we are disposed to regard the book with pleasure, as one which is likely to prepare the way for a still more extensive introduction of intellectual arithmetic, into the course of school exercises.

BOOKS FOR CHILDREN.

The Adventures of Congo in search of his Master; an American Tale, Containing a true Account of a Shipwreck, and interspersed with Anecdotes founded on Facts. Illustrated with Engravings. Boston.

The incidents of this tale are highly interesting. They are all such as are natural and credible. We have, moreover, the author's express assurance that they are not fictitious. About this latter point we confess we are not very scrupulous. An author who writes for children may, we think, draw liberally on imagination, provided he does not obtrude any gross improbability. In the latter case he loses the confidence of his young readers, and disqualifies himself, therefore, for attaining the great object of a book for children,—the production of a moral impression.

The desired result, however, may sometimes be as effectually secured through the medium of fiction as of fact. That this main point is secured in the present instance, there can be, we think, no doubt on the minds of those who have themselves perused this excellent tale, or observed the deep impression which it makes on the minds of children.

The story successfully inculcates among other things, a generous interest in the condition and circumstances of honest and affectionate domestics.

Lafayette, or Disinterested Benevolence. Boston, 1825.

This delightful narrative forms an excellent companion to the story entitled the Badge, of which a notice was given in our last number. The same lesson is inculcated in both tales; but the present embraces a fuller history of the hero.

This little book deserves a much fuller notice than our present limits can afford,—a circumstance which we regret the less, from a conviction that it has been already extensively perused. It ought indeed to be in the hands of every child whose parents wish that he should one day become a virtuous and useful citizen of the United States.

The Child's First Book: being a New Primer, for the Use of Families and Schools. By Goold Brown. New-York, 1822.

The peculiar object of this primer, is to facilitate the little learner's progress, by an arrangement in which the letters comprising the elementary syllables and words of the language are exhibited in all the analogies of their combination.

The author's attempt we think a laudable one; and, judging from the following circumstance, it seems to be abundantly successful.

Several editions of this little book have been published since 1822;—three sets of stereotype plates have been cast, and one bookseller keeps it constantly in type.

ANSWERS TO CORRESPONDENTS.

Communications respecting the following institutions have been received since our last.

Oxford Academy, N. Y.
Theological Seminary, Bangor, Maine.
Law Department of the Columbian college, District of Columbia.
Sanderson Academy.
Bridgewater " . Mass.
Bath " Maine.
Ohio University, Athens, Ohio.
Primary Schools of Maryland.

Our correspondent in Belchertown is entitled to our best thanks for his suggestions An answer to each of his questions will be furnished as soon as possible. A manual for the direction of teachers who are desirous of adopting the monitorial system is in preparation, also an article on district schools.

A valuable letter, accompanied by a pamphlet, has been received from Harrisburg, Pa. We are very desirous of receiving a full account of the progress of the important experiment in education, which is now making in that place.

The review of Wilbur's Reference Bible will be inserted as early as consistent with previous engagements.

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REGULATIONS OF THE SCHOOL COMMITTEE OF THE CITY OF BOSTON.

[The following article is copied from a pamphlet under the above title: these regulations form a valuable and interesting document connected with the present condition of education in the city of Boston; and they furnish at the same time much matter calculated to prove peculiarly useful in those parts of the country where the public mind is at present occupied with the establishment of schools similar to those which form the subject of this article.]

The following regulations of the school committee of the city of Boston, embrace the substance of those heretofore adopted by successive boards,—as far as they could be collected from 1789 to the present year, 1826,—who have, for a period of one third of a century, with laudable zeal and diligence cherished these our favorite institutions. They also correspond very nearly with the common usages of the schools. They are the fabric of our fathers, new-modelled and enlarged, and accommodated to the order of things under the city charter, and to the present circumstances and taste of the community.

Regulations relating to the Board of the School Committee.

This Board consists of twelve gentlemen annually elected, one by each ward of the city, together with the mayor and aldermen, *ex officiis*.

They are recognised by the charter as a co-ordinate branch of the city government, and, agreeably to their construction of their powers and duties, are authorised and required to organise their body, appoint their own meetings, raise their own committees, and,

in short, to manage their affairs in such manner, agreeably to the statutes of the commonwealth, as in their judgement will best promote the important objects for which they were instituted.

1. At the first meeting in each year, the board shall organise itself by appointing a chairman, a secretary, visiting committees or sub-committees, and such other special or standing committees, on different subjects, as the circumstances of the public schools for the current year seem to render expedient.

2. It shall be the duty of the chairman to preside at the meetings of this board; to call any special meeting thereof, when he may deem it necessary, or at the request of any two of its members in writing; and to be the organ of communication with any other branch or branches of the city government relative to any votes and doings of this body which may have respect to a co-operation with them in the transaction of business; copies of the same having been duly furnished by the secretary.

In the absence of the stated chairman, his place shall be filled by the board, pro tempore.

3. It shall be the duty of the secretary to keep the records of this board, and faithfully to insert therein all their votes and doings, to give written notice of all their meetings, to preserve files of the communications and reports made to them, and to perform any other service usually expected of such officer.

4. A visiting committee, or sub-committee, for each school, shall be appointed by the board, consisting of *three*, whose duty it shall be, to visit their particular school, at least once each quarter of the year, and as much oftener as they can make it convenient, for the purpose of attending carefully to all the exercises of each class; of inspecting the school bill, and inquiring into the deportment and progress of the scholars, in order to commend good conduct and improvement, and to discountenance negligence and vice; and of awarding the annual medals to superior merit. It shall be their duty to embrace these opportunities to converse freely with the instructers on the affairs of the schools, to elicit from them such occasional suggestions as may be turned to their benefit, to encourage the faithful and deserving instructer in his arduous duties, and to detect and mark the delinquencies of the remiss.

It shall be the duty of the sub-committee to give their advice to the instructers on any emergency; and, on complaint duly made, to take cognisance of any difficulty which may have occurred between the instructers and the parents of pupils, relative to the government or instruction of their school. An appeal, however, to the whole board is not hereby denied to any citizen.

In case of a vacancy in any school in the place of either of the instructers, it shall be the duty of the sub-committee of said school

to procure a temporary supply, and to give notice of such vacancy to the board, that they may proceed to fill the office in question. In each temporary supply the sub-committee shall procure, as far as it is practicable, a person of suitable qualifications to be confirmed in his place by the board, should he apply for it.

In addition to these specific duties of the sub-committees, it shall be their duty, generally, to make any temporary arrangement they may think proper, relative to the discipline and instruction of their schools, or the convenience of the instructers thereof, in cases not provided for by the general regulations of this board.

Each and every sub-committee shall report to this board, when they have visited their schools, what accommodations or indulgences they have granted any instructer, as exemption from duty, for occasional indisposition, &c. and any circumstances whatever that may have occurred in the course of business, which have a general bearing on the interests of the schools; that an order may be taken thereon, if necessary, to preserve uniformity in the system of public education.

5. An examining committee shall be annually appointed by this board, consisting of three members, at least, to be joined by as many others of the board as can conveniently attend; whose duty it shall be to visit the several schools of the city, in the month of May or June, and critically to examine the pupils in all the branches taught therein, in order to ascertain the condition of the schools and their comparative merit, and to report previously to the annual election of the instructers, that the appointments of the board, on that occasion, may be judiciously made.

6. It shall be the duty of the chairman of each sub-committee, or special, or standing committee, to call a meeting of the same immediately after their appointment, when the times of future meetings, and such other arrangements shall be agreed on, as shall be deemed by them expedient. All the official acts of such committees shall be done in meetings of the same, duly notified by the chairman, and shall be expressive of the sense of a majority of any such committee, and when reported to this board shall be in writing, and shall be submitted to their paramount authority.

7. Although the interest of the schools demands sub-committees of this board, each member of it shall consider it his duty to exercise a watch over the literary and moral improvement of every public school in the city, and to afford personal assistance in their visitations, exhibitions, and examinations; in short, on common or special, occasions, according to his inclination, leisure and convenience.

8. In the month of June, annually, this board shall nominate and appoint a suitable number of gentlemen, (at present fifty-two,) as

equally distributed as may be among the wards of the city, whose duty collectively shall be to provide instruction for children between four and seven years of age, and to apportion the expenses among the several schools, agreeably to the direction of the town at the institution of the *Primary Schools;* and shall authorise the committee of these schools to organise their body and regulate their proceedings, as they deem most convenient, and to fill all vacancies occurring in the same, during the year; from whom this board will respectfully receive such communications as they may please occasionally to make on the subject of those schools.

9. Whenever this board shall judge that the accommodation and benefit of the community require an additional school, or the enlargement or new-modelling of any in operation, it shall be their duty to attend to the subject, and without delay to request the co-operation of the City Council in the business: and there shall be appointed annually a standing committee of the board to meet the agents of said department, and jointly with the same to superintend the construction of the apartments, seats, &c. of the building to be erected or repaired during the year; that the best models may be adopted to subserve the purposes of improved education, for which this board is responsible to the community.

10. A majority of the board shall be required to constitute a quorum for the transaction of business at any meeting of the same.

11. There shall be the following stated meetings of this board, viz. on the second Tuesday of May, August, November, and February, at 10 o'clock, A. M. at the room of the Mayor and Aldermen. At the stated meetings in February and August, suitable arrangements shall be made, and special committees appointed for the semi-annual visitations and exhibitions of the several schools.

Regulations relating to the Public Schools.

THE public schools of this city consist of one Latin Grammar School, one English High School, eight Grammar and Writing Schools, besides one African School; and of fifty-one Primary Schools,* in all of which children of both sexes are freely admitted to all the privileges therein enjoyed, except in the two schools first named, which are designed exclusively for the benefit of the male population.† These schools are intended to form a system of education, advancing from the lowest to the highest degree of improvement, which can be derived from any literary seminaries inferior

* Two additional schools of this class have been voted.

† The High School for Girls—for an account of which, see No. 2, of this Journal, and intelligence in our present number,—now affords corresponding advantages to females.

to colleges and universities. In these, the youth of this metropolis, through the unexampled liberality of the citizens in their corporate capacity, and the munificence of individuals, at different periods, enjoy advantages second to none in the schools of our country, for obtaining a practical and theoretical acquaintance with the various branches of a useful education, for acquiring good moral habits, and imbibing pure and patriotic principles.

The particular superintendence of the *Primary Schools* is delegated to a separate board, who publish their own rules and regulations.*

Regulations common to all the Public Schools under the immediate Superintendence of the School Committee.

1. The instructers, in all the public schools, shall be elected, and their salaries voted, annually; and no continuance or preferment of them in office shall be predicated on any principles, but those of literary and moral merit and practical skill. In their original appointment, the degree of Bachelor of Arts, at some respectable college, duly incorporated and authorised to confer degrees, shall be considered as a necessary qualification in the instructers of all the public schools, except the writing.

2. As all the instructers derive their authority from this board, they shall be alike responsible to it for the faithful discharge of their appropriate duties, and be equally under its patronage, and shall be alike respected and obeyed by their pupils. The Masters of the schools shall hold priority of rank; and their direction shall be followed in cases not provided for by the general regulations of this board, or any sub-committee of the same, or by the written and authorised rules of the school. In instances of unfaithfulness in office, it shall be the mutual duty of those immediately connected in the business of a school, to represent the same to the sub-committee of the school in question, and through them to this board; that any abuse of their confidence may be promptly corrected.

3. The instructers shall be punctual in their attendance at the hours appointed for opening the schools, and shall require like punctuality of the scholars. Strict regard shall also be paid to the hours assigned for dismissing the schools; and no scholars shall be allowed to depart before the same, except at the request of a parent or guardian, expressed personally at the time, or by a particular note, or special messenger, or in cases otherwise authorised by the committee. During school hours the instructers shall faithfully devote themselves to the public service only.

4. The morning exercises of all the schools shall commence with

* An abstract of these rules will be given in our next.

reading the scriptures, and prayer, by the masters, or, in their absence, by the assistants, in their respective apartments; and the evening exercises shall be concluded in like manner.

5. The books used, the studies pursued, and the general classification established, in all the public schools, shall be such and such only as shall have met the approbation of their respective sub-committees, or have been introduced by a special committee and in due form authorised by the board. No scholars shall be allowed to retain their connection with any of the public schools, unless they are furnished by their parents or guardians with the books and utensils regularly required to be used in the schools respectively.

6. All the masters shall be required to keep bills or books, which shall be furnished at the public expense, and shall remain the property of the schools, in which they shall record the names, ages, places of residence, absences, and tardiness of their pupils, and such other particulars of their conduct, application, improvement, promotion, and general character, as shall enable the committees at their visitations, (on all of which it shall be the duty of the masters to exhibit the same to them,) to form an adequate idea of the state of the schools; and it shall be the duty of the instructers frequently to remind their pupils of the important consequences, which may result to them individually from these perpetual records.

7. It is enjoined on the instructers to keep the children out of idleness, and give them as full employment as possible; to exercise vigilant, prudent, and firm discipline; to punish as sparingly as is consistent with effect; and to govern by persuasion and gentle measures, so far as is practicable. Standing in the place of parents for the time being, it shall be their duty to endeavor to exercise severally over their pupils all that authority, and that only, which must be exercised by a kind and judicious father of a family, to obtain and ensure the prompt obedience and good deportment of his children.

They shall encourage and assist industrious and good scholars, shall reward and honor them in the prosecution of their studies, and endeavor, by judicious and diversified modes, to render the exercises of the schools pleasant as well as profitable.

For violent or pointed opposition to his authority in any particular instance, or for the repetition of an offence, the instructer may exclude a child from his school, for the time being, for the purpose of reflection and consultation; and thereupon shall inform the parent or guardian of the measure, and shall apply to the sub-committee for advice and direction.

Where the example of any scholar is very injurious and contagious, and, in general, in all cases where reformation appears hopeless, it shall be the duty of the masters, with the approbation

of the sub-committee, to have recourse to suspension from the school. But any child under this public censure, who shall have expressed to the instructers his regret for his folly or indiscretion, as openly and explicitly as the nature of the case seems to them to require, and who manifests full proof of his amendment, shall be reinstated by them in the privileges of the school; not, however, without the previous consent of said committee.

That the children may perceive that they are under a system of discipline, not arbitrary or capricious, but equitable and uniform, the committee recommend to the instructers, especially where two instructers are employed in the apartment, to commit to writing, in general terms, their requirements and prohibitions, and to cause them to be read aloud in school occasionally, and to be posted up, that the children may not plead ignorance of duty with this constant monitor before them: and that where there are two instructers enforcing their own rules, there may be a constant and effectual co-operation. These written rules, (with their sanctions annexed in general terms,) not contravening the express regulations enacted by this board, and having received the approbation of the sub-committees of the schools, respectively, shall be authorised by this board.

To promote the well-being of their pupils, it shall be the indispensable duty of the instructers to exercise a general care and inspection over them as well out of school as within its walls, and frequently to inculcate upon them the principles of kindness and sincerity to their equals; of due respect to the aged and to superiors; of reverence for the literary, civil, and religious institutions of our country; of love of social order and obedience to the laws; of supreme regard to the name and will of God and to virtue: and, moreover, they shall instil into their susceptible minds an abhorrence of idleness, of profane and indecent language, of falsehood, dishonesty, and inhumanity, a dread of the misrule of appetite and passion, and of the fatal consequences of a vicious life. And the instructers shall be required, subject to the advice of the sub-committee, to expel from school any pupil, who shall manifest a habitual and determined neglect of these duties.

8. It shall be the duty of the instructers to exercise suitable vigilance with regard to the apartments of the public buildings, and appurtenances of the same, by them respectively occupied, that there may be no unnecessary injury sustained by them, from their pupils, by cutting, disfiguring, or other improper usage.

9. The following shall be the only Holydays and Vacations, granted alike to all the public schools; viz. every Thursday and Saturday afternoon throughout the year; days of Fast and Thanksgiving; Christmas day, and the afternoons preceding Fasts, Thanksgivings,

and Christmas; the first Monday in June; the fourth of July; the general trainings; Election week; Commencement week; and the remainder of the week after the visitation and exhibition of the schools; and no other days, except by a special vote of this board.*

10. There shall be two general visitations of the schools annually, for the purpose of exhibition, viz. the first, on the Wednesday next preceding Commencement at the university in Cambridge; the second, on the third Wednesday in February;* and one fortnight shall be given the instructers to prepare their pupils to appear to advantage on these occasions. Over these exhibitions the special committees appointed by this board to attend, shall exercise whatever control they shall judge proper.

At the exhibition in August, besides other marks of distinction, the Franklin medals shall be bestowed in public as rewards of merit, on those boys to whom they have been previously assigned by the sub-committees of the respective schools; "general scholarship" having been taken into consideration in the assignments; and the city medals, on those girls, who have obtained them by like merit.†

11. In cases of difficulty in the discharge of their official duties, or when any temporary dispensation in their favor is desirable, the instructers shall apply to the Sub-committees of their respective schools for advice and direction, for the time being.

12. No instructer in the public schools shall be allowed to keep a private school of any description whatever, or to attend to the instruction of any private pupils, before 6 o'clock, P. M. and any Master or Usher violating this regulation, shall be considered as having vacated his office.

13. Any instructer, who shall intentionally violate any of the regulations of this board made for his observance, or shall counteract any of their orders, duly promulgated to him, shall immediately, on proof of the fact, be dismissed from his office.

14. A good understanding shall ever be maintained among all the public schools in the city.

No scholar shall be admitted to the privileges of one school who has been expelled or even suspended, from another, while he is under that censure.

* At a meeting of the School Committee, 6th Dec. 1825, it was ordered "That for the future, there shall be a public exhibition of the girls in the first class of the several public Grammar and Writing Schools of the city, in the forenoon of the last Tuesday of November annually:—that the afternoon of that day, in the Grammar and Writing Schools, and the remainder of the week after the annual State Thanksgiving, in all the schools, be added to the present holidays; and that the February visitation of all the public schools of the city, together with the holidays succeeding the same, be discontinued.

† To be conferred, hereafter, on the day of the public exhibition of the girls in November.

Every scholar, who shall be transferred from one school to another of the same rank, shall be the bearer of a certificate from the master he leaves, expressing his standing and character, which shall be demanded of him, as a condition of his admission, by the master to whom he applies for that purpose. In this case no examination of his qualifications shall be required for admission to the same standing.

Children going from inferior schools to superior, as from the primary schools to the public grammar schools, and from these to the Latin or English High School, shall also be the bearers of certificates setting forth their character and qualifications, as an indispensable condition of their being admitted to examination for the advanced standing, to which they aspire, in those schools, respectively.

Regulations relating to the English Grammar Schools.

These schools are the second in order in the system of public education established in this city. The following are their situations and names.

1. North Bennet Street.	Eliot School.
2. Middle Street,	Hancock School.
3. Hawkins Street,	Mayhew School.
4. Derne Street,	Bowdoin School.
5. Belknap Street,	African School.
6. Mason Street,	Adams School.
7. Nassau Street,	Franklin School.
8. Fort Hill,	Boylston School.
9. South Boston,	*——— School.

In these, where the arrangement is completed, there are two apartments in the building, or two schools connected in their operation, each under a distinct master and assistant; in one of which the children are taught spelling, reading, declamation, geography, English grammar, and English exercises on the various parts of grammar, including composition; and in the other are taught writing and arithmetic. To these apply the following regulations, in addition to those laid down in the preceding chapter.

1. Children may be admitted into the grammar and writing schools, at the age of seven years, having been qualified at the primary schools, or having received the necessary preparatory instruction at other schools. No examination of those shall take place, who bring with them the certificate of recommendation from the ward, or district committee of the primary schools, stated in section 6, rule 6, of their rules and regulations. The qualifications

* This School has not been officially named.

of others shall be particularly ascertained by the master of the grammar department of the school; and it shall appear that they have been made acquainted with the common stops and abbreviations, have been exercised in some judicious spelling book, can tell the chapters and verses, and can read fluently and spell correctly in the New Testament, in order to their admission into his school.

No scholar shall attend the writing department of either of these schools, who has not been previously examined and admitted by the master of the grammar department.

2. To prevent inconvenience to the instructers and derangement of the classes, new pupils shall be admitted into the public grammar schools only on the first Monday of every month through the year.

3. Boys shall not be permitted to retain their places in the grammar and writing schools, beyond the day of the next semi-annual visitation, or exhibition, after they have arrived at 14 years of age, unless by special leave, obtained from this board. Girls shall be allowed to attend these schools one year longer than boys.

4. Children admitted into the grammar schools shall be required to attend half of the time in the writing department. No scholar shall be suffered to give his general or exclusive attendance in one department of the school, to the neglect of the other, without a special permit from this board.

5. From the first Monday in April, to the first Monday in October annually, the hours for keeping these schools, shall be from 8 o'clock, A. M. until 12, and from two until 5 o'clock, P. M.; and from the first Monday in October, to the first Monday in April, from 9 to 12, and from 2 to half past 4. From the first Monday in April, to the first Monday in December, shall be called the summer term, and from the first Monday in December, to the first Monday in April, the winter term, of these schools.

6. No children belonging to these schools shall be allowed to come into school later than a quarter of an hour after the hour appointed for opening the same, and none shall be permitted to depart therefrom, but at the appointed hour; except occasionally, according to the 3d Reg. of the preceding chapter, and the 9th Reg. in this chapter.

7. These schools shall be divided into four classes, except for the purposes of writing, each having its appropriate duties and employments. Sub-divisions of these classes shall be left to the discretion of the instructers; as few, however, as may be, being hereby recommended. It is also recommended to the instructers to avail themselves of the assistance of their most advanced pupils, whenever it can be faithfully and judiciously applied, in order to render the more effectual service to the schools.

8. The internal economy of these schools, relative to the order, extent, and frequency of exercises, competition for places, &c. in the different apartments, is left to the good sense and fidelity of the instructers, subject to the control of the sub-committees of the schools respectively. But their special attention is required to the ventilation and temperature of the school rooms, and to the cleanliness and comfort of the scholars of these large establishments.

9. One hour before the regular time of closing the morning school, and one half hour before that of closing the evening school, during the summer term, as in Reg. 5, of this section, the children of the first and third classes shall be dismissed in the forenoon, and of the second and fourth in the afternoon, from the first Monday in April to the fifteenth day of the same month inclusive; and from that to the first Monday of May the children of the second and fourth classes shall be dismissed in the morning and those of the first and third in the afternoon; and so on alternately half-monthly; such individuals of them only being detained for punishment, as shall have been idle, or disorderly; provided the instructers see fit to adopt this mode of punishment. During this hour, or half hour as the case may be, the instructers shall be at liberty to dismiss in succession such individuals of the remaining classes as they find on recitation to acquit themselves well, if no delinquency or misdemeanor of theirs may render this inexpedient. The instructers, however, themselves shall give their full time to the business of the school, and not leave the same before the hours appointed for dismissing, as in the 5th regulation of this chapter.

10. Females shall attend these schools from the first Monday in April to the first Monday in December; but the males shall attend through the year.

11. During the summer term the boys and girls shall attend in the different apartments of the school alternately in the following order. From the first Monday in April to the first Monday in May, all the girls shall attend the grammar master, and all the boys the writing master in the morning; and all the girls shall attend the writing master, and all the boys shall attend the grammar master, in the afternoon. The month following, the order shall be reversed: and this alteration shall continue through the summer term.

12. From the first Monday in December to the first Monday in January, the first and third classes shall attend the grammar, and the second and fourth the writing master, in the morning; and the first and third shall attend the writing, and the second and fourth the grammar master in the afternoon. The month succeeding the order shall be reversed; and so on alternately, during the winter term.

13. The following books and exercises, are those required, at present, in the English Grammar department of these schools.

Fourth Class. No. 1. Spelling book, by Lindley Murray, stereotype edition. 2. New Testament.

Third Class. No. 1. 2. continued, and No. 3. Murray's Introduction to his English Reader, Boston stereotype edition.

Second Class. No. 4. Bible. 5. Murray's English Reader, Boston stereotype edit. 6. Murray's English Grammar, abridged by himself, stereotype edition, or Alger's Abridgement of the same work. 7. Walker's Dictionary abridged. 8. Geography, with Atlas, by Worcester.

First Class. No. 4. 6. 7. 8. continued, and No. 9. American First Class Book. 10. Murray's English Grammar and Exercises, stereotype edition; and Composition. 11. Declamation.

14. It shall be the duty of the instructers in the writing department of the school to prepare the writing books and pens of the scholars at such time, that there may be no delay or interruption of business in school hours.

In this department all the children shall be taught writing and arithmetic daily.

That there may be no intervals of idleness, the instructers shall require them to learn perfectly by heart such tables and rules in arithmetic as they find suitable to their various capacities and improvements; and if these exercises are not sufficient, spelling lessons shall fill up their leisure.

The number of classes or divisions in writing shall depend on the pleasure of the writing master. But for the purposes of arithmetic this school shall be divided into four classes, and be taught as follows.

Fourth Class. Numeration Table. Numeration and Notation fully exemplified, in small and large numbers. Roman Notation. Addition and Subtraction Table, with its uses. Multiplication and Division Table, with its uses.

Third Class. Simple Addition, Subtraction, Multiplication, and Division, Federal Money.

Second Class. Compound Tables of Money, Weights, and Measures, Reduction, Compound Addition, Subtraction, Multiplication, and Division, Exchange of Coins.

First Class. Rule of Three, and more advanced Rules, in which the principle of Proportion is involved. Vulgar and Decimal Fractions, as applicable to those Rules, The Roots, &c.

The author on arithmetic required to be used is Daboll, for the

purpose of written arithmetic. Colburn's Arithmetic and Sequel may be used for the profitable exercises of mental calculation.*

15. It shall be the duty of the masters of each school to make to the secretary of this board regular quarterly returns, i. e. on the first week of April, July, October, and January, signed by both masters, of the number of scholars, male and female, attending their school, together with their ages, and places of abode, that this board may regulate the number which shall attend each school, and, if necessary, transfer some to other schools, where fewer attend; regard being always had, in adopting this measure, to the distance of each pupil from the schools, it being intended, that the children, as far as possible, shall be accommodated in the school nearest to their residence.

Regulations relating to the English High School.

This school is situated in Pinckney street. It has been instituted at the public expense, with the express design of furnishing the young men of this city, who are not intended for a collegiate course of study, and who have derived the usual advantages of the other public schools, with the means of completing a good English education, to fit them for active life, or qualify them for eminence in private or public stations. Here are enjoyed, especially, the best instructions in the elements of mathematics and natural philosophy, with their application to the sciences and arts, in grammar, rhetoric, and belles lettres, in moral philosophy, and in history, natural and civil. This establishment is furnished with a very valuable mathematical and philosophical apparatus, for the purposes of experiment and illustration.

In addition to the common regulations, the following are required to be observed in this school.

1. No boy shall be admitted, as a member of the English High School, under the age of 12 years.

2. Boys shall be examined for admission into this school only once a year, viz. on the Friday and Saturday following the semi-annual visitation and exhibition of the school in August.

3. Candidates for examination shall produce from the masters of the schools they last attended, certificates of good moral character and presumed qualifications for admission into this school. It shall, however, be the duty of the master of it, to institute a personal examination of them in Reading, Writing, English Grammar, Geography, and arithmetic as far as Proportion, including a general

* Daboll's Arithmetic is now superseded. For written Arithmetic, Robinson's Elements are used; and for mental, Colburn's First Lessons and Sequel.

view of Vulgar and Decimal Fractions, in all which they shall be found well versed, in order to be admitted.

4. The school shall be divided into three classes; and such sections of these shall be formed as the good of the school may, from time to time, demand. Each class shall have their appropriate studies assigned them, corresponding to the intellectual progress of the institution: and to every class and section of the same the master shall be required to give a due proportion of his personal attention.

5. Individuals shall be advanced in these classes according to their scholarship, and no faster; and none shall be permitted to remain members of the school longer than three years to complete their course.

6. The classes or sections shall be required to pursue their respective branches of study not less than one week, without mixture, except where occasional exercises, as writing, reading, declamation, composition, &c. may be advantageously introduced, as a relief to the pupils.

7. Particular reviews of each class, or section, shall be instituted, once a week; and general reviews once a quarter, by the several instructers, in their appropriate departments.

8. The branches of learning and the authors, to which the several classes shall, at present, be required to attend, are as follows:

3d, or lowest Class. No. 1. Intellectual and Written Arithmetic, by Colburn and Lacroix. 2. Ancient and Modern Geography, by Worcester. 3. General History, by Tytler; History of the United States, by Goodrich. 4. Elements of Arts and Sciences, by Blair. 5. Reading, Grammar and Declamation. 6. Bookkeeping, by Single and Double Entry. 7. Sacred Geogaphy.

2d Class. No. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, continued. And No. 8. Algebra, by dictation....and Colburn. 9. Rhetoric and Composition....Blair's Lect. Abridg. 10. Geometry, by Legendre. 11. Natural Philosophy. 12. Natural Theology, by Paley.

1st Class. No. 5, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, continued. And 13. Chronology. 14. Moral Philosophy, by Paley. 15. Forensics. 16. Criticisms on English Authors. 17. Practical Mathematics, comprehending Navigation, Surveying, Mensuration, Astronomical Calculations, &c. together with the Construction and Use of Mathematical Instruments. 20. A course of Experimental Lectures on the various branches of Natural Philosophy. 21. Evidences of Christianity, by Paley.

9. For every accession of forty pupils to the whole number in this school, an additional assistant shall be allowed the master, that is, there shall be at least one instructer for every forty pupils.

10. Supplemental to the holydays granted to all the schools, the English High School shall be entitled to the week succeeding the week of Commencement at Cambridge, as an extension of their vacation.

11. The times for beginning and ending this school, daily, and the allowance for tardiness, shall be the same as in the Latin Grammar School; excepting, that no classes shall be dismissed before the regular hour of closing the school, in the forenoon.*

[The regulations relating to the Latin Grammar School, follow the matter contained in the preceding extracts; but as the substance, and in fact, the results of those regulations have been already given in our extracts from the Prize Book, it would be unnecessary to insert them here.]

A MANUAL OF THE SYSTEM OF MONITORIAL OR MUTUAL INSTRUCTION.

After the favorable reception which the system of mutual instruction has of late experienced, and the solid arguments in favor of its utility deduced from successful experiments made in our own country, and under our own observation, a formal defence of it cannot be necessary. The public in general are satisfied; they do not want proofs of the utility of the system, but plain directions to enable them to put it in practice.

The directions given in the following manual are founded upon a knowledge of all the improvements which have been made upon the new system since its first promulgation, and the experience of several years in the instruction of elementary and other schools; upon, it is believed a thorough knowledge of the system hitherto pursued in New England; and a rigid regard for *economy*, a consideration of no little weight in most of the school districts in our country towns. Our manual is intended for public schools, where spelling, reading, writing, arithmetic, grammar and geography only are taught, and is equally applicable to small schools of thirty, or

* The following are the rules to which reference is made above.

The times of beginning and ending this school shall be the same in the forenoon as in the public grammar schools; but, in the afternoon, school shall commence, during the summer term, at 3 o'clock P. M. and end at 6; and during the winter term, shall begin half past 2, and end at half past 4; and 5 minutes only shall be allowed for tardiness, at the expiration of which the doors shall be closed against delinquents.

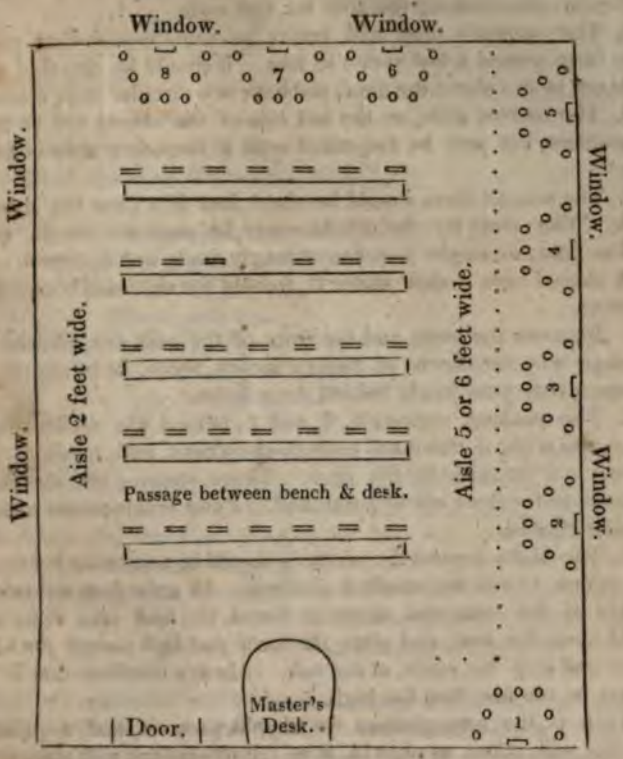
The three lowest classes shall be dismissed from the school each day, at 11 o'clock, that an hour may be devoted by them to relaxation, or to some polite accomplishment, or useful study, at the pleasure of each individual.

large ones of three hundred or more. Mutual instruction was first introduced to save the expense of teachers in large schools, but experience has discovered in it a far greater benefit, which is the more thorough and practical education acquired by those children who are required to *teach* as well as learn, and, in a well ordered school on the monitorial plan, *every* child before he leaves the school is employed as a teacher. In schools, therefore, of only twenty or thirty scholars, although the master may feel perfectly competent to teach them all personally, still it is desirable that they should learn the use of his instructions by transmitting them to the younger scholars.

It is to be regretted that in our common school rooms so little regard has been paid to the convenience of the master and pupils. The bench of one desk is generally fastened to the front of the next desk, so as to allow no passage behind the scholar, and to oblige him to disturb the whole row when he wishes to leave his seat. This arrangement also effectually prevents the writing master from passing between the desks to examine the books of the writers. Another fault of construction in our school rooms is that the forms or desks do not all face the master's desk. This prevents his having a commanding view of the whole, and the scholars having a convenient view of him, and what he wishes to show them; besides, it enables the children to look at each other, a serious evil were one sex only present, but much more serious, when, as in most of our country schools, both sexes are in the same room, and placed opposite to each other. These are the two greatest defects in the construction of our school rooms, and it is desirable that they should be remedied before the new system is introduced; but let it be understood, that the new system may be tried in a room of any construction, although its advantages cannot be so fully appreciated as when the room is more conveniently arranged.

A parallelogram, or oblong square, is the best form for a school room; the instructer's desk should be at the end nearest the door, that he may see who enters or goes out, and that visiters who come in may see the faces of all the scholars, as will be the case if the desks cross the room in front of the master's desk. It is necessary to have a broad aisle of five or six feet on one side of the school, in which the classes may form semicircles around their monitors, who stand or sit with their backs to the wall.

The annexed diagram will give some idea of the most simple and convenient form of a school room; and school committees who are about to erect new school houses, may be assured that the arrangement we propose will be found as convenient for the *old* system of instruction, as for the *new*, besides the economy of room, which will be evident.



REMARKS.

1. The semicircles as they are called, are not perfectly so, for it is found that the shape here given takes up less room and is more convenient for the class. These are the reciting stations, in the centre of which is a seat for the monitor. This seat may be a permanent one, a desk, or a chair, or the monitor may be required to stand, which is the preferable mode.

2. There should be about eighteen inches between the ends of the semicircles, so that children standing at each may not touch each other.

3. From the wall to the front of the semicircles may be about four feet, and then there must be room between the front of the semicircles and the desks, to allow of a person's passing down the aisle.

while the children are standing at the stations. Two feet will be sufficient, thus making the aisle six feet wide.

4. The master's desk had better be semicircular that classes may form around it and recite to him. It should be elevated about eighteen inches above the floor, and have two circular steps around it.

5. The narrow aisle on the left side of the school will be found convenient, but may be dispensed with if the other aisle is a wide one.

6. The nearest form should be about four feet from the master's desk. The seats for the scholars may be separate stools, nailed to the floor, or single benches strongly made and fastened. The desk should have a shelf under it, to hold the slate and books of the children.

7. Between the seats and the front of the next row, should be a passage way of fifteen or twenty inches width, that master and monitors may pass freely behind the scholars.

8. The reading stations 6, 7, and 8, behind the desks, may be dispensed with, if there are enough elsewhere, and, in winter, one or two may be made by the door. These stations are marked by grooves in the floor cut or scratched. Paint is sometimes used but is soon effaced.
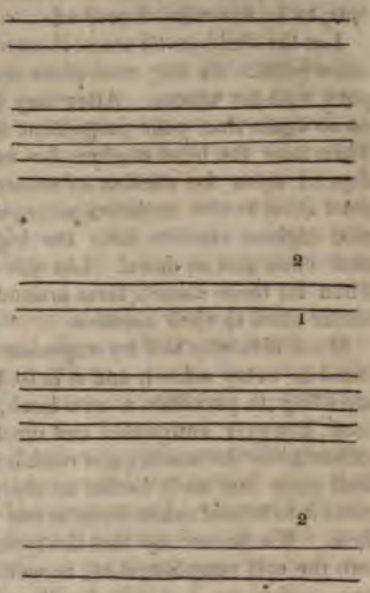
9. The desks nearest the master's should be somewhat lower than the others, to suit the smallest children. In arranging the relative height of the seats and desks or forms, the best plan is to set a child upon the seat, and place the form *just high enough for him to write and keep his elbow at his side.* Always recollect that it had better be too low than too high.

Such is the arrangement we should propose, and a judicious teacher will come as near to it as circumstances will allow. He may adopt the whole or a part, or none, for it *is* possible to do without reading stations, the monitor sitting at the end of a bench, and the children standing in a semicircle around him. It is better however for the classes to read towards the wall than towards the centre of the room.

In European schools, and in some in our own country, where the poor are chiefly taught, the children read from sheets printed in very large type, and hung against the wall, over the monitor's seat. The class can all see the sheet, and read from it. After a class has read one sheet, they exchange sheets with another class, and thus one set of sheets, or *cards*, as they are called, will suffice for a large school. There are, however, many disadvantages attending the use of these cards, and as the selections on them are very inferior to the books generally used in our schools, and, moreover, as our villages contain few parents so poor that they can-

not procure the necessary books, we should recommend the use of books to the exclusion of cards.

Each child *must* have a slate, which should be ruled after the following pattern.



The five lines are for the body of the letter, the middle to show where most letters join. The *inner* of the *two* lines mark the length of stems not looped, and the outer lines the length of those looped. Three such lines, or assemblages of lines, may be put on one side of a common slate, the other side is kept unruled.

As every master has his own mode of teaching writing, he can rule the slate to suit himself, if he does not like our plan. Our system can become 'all things to all men,' in such nonessentials.

No other apparatus will be needed except a small bell or whistle, and a board about four feet by three and painted black. This is placed over the master's desk, or wherever the scholars can see it best, and letters, words or sums, diagrams, &c. are written on it with chalk. The board must be well painted, but not varnished, and chalk of the best quality, free from particles of flint, should be used, that the board may not be scratched.

In such schools as can afford it we should also recommend another board painted black, and ruled with white or red lines like the slates, with a great and small alphabet painted on it, the length and proportions of the letters being carefully preserved, that the child may always have a copy to appeal to, when in doubt about the form of a letter.

In offering directions for a change of systems in our common schools, we shall suppose some one employed to teach a school of this sort, and shall give him the necessary directions.

Before the day appointed for opening the school, let it be known that each child is expected to bring his last writing book, ciphering

book, and all the other books he has used the previous season. This will assist in classing them, which is the first important step.

When the children are all assembled, write their names on a sheet of paper to be afterwards copied *alphabetically* on the class *lists*, to be hereafter described.

Let the children all stand in one or two lines, and read from the same book. As they read place them higher or lower as they compare with the others. After they have read round once, let them do so again that your judgement may be corrected or confirmed. Then take the head readers for monitors, and their number must depend upon the number of scholars. One hundred scholars will need about twelve monitors, after you have taken these, let the eight next highest readers form the highest class, the eight next, the next class and so down. Let the *lowest* class be called the *first*. Then let these classes form around the stations, and assign a particular class to each monitor.

Much difficulty will be experienced from the diversity of books found in every school, and it is to be lamented that parents are so unwilling to purchase a new book, however improved, while any book, however antiquated and unsuitable is already owned. This embarrasses the teacher and retards the progress of the pupils. We shall point out such books as are suitable, and earnestly recommend it to school committees to see that every child is supplied with them. We do not say that the system we advocate cannot struggle with the evil complained of, as well as the old system can; but we love uniformity, and are unwilling to dig our garden with a *hoe*, when for a trifle we can purchase a *spade*.

Having classed the *readers*, the next thing is to class the *writers* Let each scholar write three words on his slate, each writing the same words that they may be more easily compared. Select the best writers, say as many as you have forms, for monitors of writing on the slate, and if possible let these *slate monitors* not be the same children you have selected for *reading monitors*. Then divide the children into classes, which may consist of as many as sit at one form, if the school be numerous. Let the best writers occupy the forms farthest from the master's desk, and the beginners will then occupy the lower desks.

Having classed the *writers*, arrange all the scholars, and give a fair trial at *spelling*. Let one or two of the best writers take down the names of the scholars, and mark each scholar that spells incorrectly. Let those who err go below those who spell the word right. After spelling round ten or fifteen times, let those who have made no error, (as will appear on the slate,) take the head, those who have made only one go next, and so down to those who erred the most. As there will be several who failed in the same number of words, precedence must be given to those who stood the highest when

they left off spelling, and this is the chief object of letting them go up and down, when a record is kept on the slate also. Now begin at the *foot* and mark off eight for the first class, then the next eight for the second, and so on until only enough are left for monitors of these classes. Then let the monitors, beginning at the highest, choose a class, until each class has a monitor.

Let each, with slate in hand, stand up for examination in *arithmetic*. Such as have never ciphered may be classed according to ages, but such as have ciphered, must first be tried in numeration, then addition, subtraction, &c. and as fast as any fail to do the sum, mark them off for a class. Take the best for monitors, and then yourself teach these monitors numeration thoroughly, and let them teach the same to their classes. Require all to *begin*, that they may review, and let none advance until thoroughly acquainted with a rule.

As but a small proportion will have studied *grammar* and *geography*, there will probably be but one class, and this you must teach yourself. But you will soon permit others to commence the study of these branches, that your class may be exercised in teaching them.

As directions for their use are given in the grammar and geography we shall hereafter propose, we need only remark here that when more branches are taught, less time must be allowed for each branch, or geography may be studied one day or one week and grammar on the next week. This arrangement can be made by the teacher.

Supposing the school to open at 9, and continue till 12 A. M. and then to open at 2 and continue till 4 in the afternoon, the following may be the order of exercises until experience teaches a better.

At nine A. M. ring the little *bell* as a signal for every child to take his seat. Call the *roll* and give each child present a *merit mark* for *punctuality*. The nature of this merit mark will be hereafter explained, though not so fully as in the second number of this Journal, pp. 72, 73.

9¼. Order monitors of *reading* to their *stations*, then direct the classes to form around them, in perfect silence, with hands behind. Give a *signal* for all to begin to read *at once*. Whilst the classes are reading to the monitors the master goes round and hears each class a little, or hears a different class each day, keeping a vigilant eye upon the whole school.

5 m. before 10. Ring the bell for all to *stop*, and require all to do so *instantly*, even if a word be half pronounced. Let them then form a line in front of their reading stations, (where the dotted line is in our diagram.) Then take the *class* list and, beginning with the highest class, give a *merit* to such as their monitors say deserve one, and so on to the lowest class. In very large scho[illegible]d

take too long to call the roll in this way, the monitor, therefore, must be required to keep a little list of his own class, and mark the merits himself upon it, transferring them once a week to the general list kept by the master. Then order the classes highest, first, to walk lightly with hands behind to their *seats*. It is better that they stand behind their seats untill the signal is given to sit all together.—All this may as well be done in five minutes as in fifty.

10 o'clock. Call the monitors of *reading* around your desk, *to read to you*. Then order monitors of *slate writing* to their stations at the head or end of each form.. Let an intelligent monitor, with a clear voice, called the *monitor of dictation*, say '*Take slates.*' Each child lays his slate before him.—'*Clean slates.*' Each child rubs untill the bell sounds for all to stop together, and put their hands behind at the same instant.

In some schools on this plan the slate is immoveably fixed in the the form, in others there is a place into which it fits but is not fixed. We think it better to dispense with the former plan that the children may be able to carry their slates out to their ciphering stations, and with the latter that the surface of the form may not be uneven when they write on paper, and with both that the children may sit nearer each other than the fixed slates will allow, in case the school is crowded.

It should be recollected that the children have all been classed in writing, but do not sit according to that classification. It is necessary, therefore, that they leave their seats to be classed. To do this, the monitor of dictation says, '*Ready!*' then, '*rise!*' '*walk!*' Let them follow the head of the class to the side of school room across the broad aisle, and remain in single file, and turn round. Then let the highest row file off to their writing stations and the rest follow. It takes some time to describe this movement; but two minutes are sufficient to execute it. The monitor of dictation will keep order, while the classes are writing; but if the school be very large, he may have a colleague called monitor of *order*. After the slates are filled with words, (three long words or six short ones,) the monitor of dictation orders the slate monitors to examine slates. They do this, marking errors in spelling, badly formed letters, &c. These monitors should have their own slates also, and write the words which their classes write; and, before they are directed to examine their classes, they may show their own slates to the monitor of dictation. This is a salutary check upon the monitors; but if they are not required to write themselves, they should keep behind their classes all the time, instructing and correcting them.

When they write on the slate, let such as are capable write *the same word*, which must be one in the regular *spelling lesson*. The little children who cannot write whole words, must write letters, or parts of letters, and their monitor must set them copies untill they

can write from dictation. Every child must write something, and of course must have a slate and pencil.

The monitor of dictation goes to the highest class, and spells very distinctly the word they are to write. He then goes to the next class and gives them a word from their lesson, and so down to the classes which are unable to write words.

10¼. Send off your class of *reading* monitors. Ring the bell for writing to cease. Give the word 'ready!—rise!—walk!' and then let them file off to their seats, as before writing. They should however have a *merit*, if they have written well and correctly, and you may mark them by calling each name, or let the monitors do it on small lists.

10 h. 35 m. Ring the bell for *spelling* monitors to go to their stations. Say, 'ready! rise! lead off, highest first, to spelling stations.' While the classes are spelling to you, you will hear the monitors of *arithmetic* recite, or inspect their work. If you are unwilling to take them from their spelling, you may take some other half hour less inconvenient.

11 o'clock. Ring for *silence*. Mark *merits*. Lead off from the head of the highest class.

11 and 5 minutes. Hear the *grammar* class yourself Monday, Wednesday and Friday—or that in *geography* Tuesday, Thursday and Saturday. The rest of the school may be employed in copying a word written on the board, or in saying the multiplication tables, &c., after a monitor, altogether, or finally, in spelling altogether, but in a low voice, the words of the day's lesson. By all means require them to do something.

11½. The classification for writing on the slate, will not always do for paper also. Therefore, after you have examined their former writing books, and selected your monitors for writing on *paper*, let them proceed—'ready!—rise!—walk!'—as they did *before* writing on the slate, and then file off to the new seats. Then let the monitors give the books and pens of their classes to them.

It is well to have *two sets of monitors*, that one set may be on duty a week, and the other relieve them next week. Then you may teach the class of monitors not on duty, and oversee the whole school, particularly the lower scholars, who do not write on paper, and may be employed on the slate.

If there are not good writers enough for two sets of monitors, and you have but one set, you must contrive to let them write a little while between or during some of the other exercises; although this is not very important, because they have practice in setting copies for their classes, which duty may be performed in the recess between schools, or at some spare moment in school time. Monitors seldom need to be told when to do this, for they easily find an opportunity themselves.

12 o'clock. Make each child show his *copy* to you, and give him a merit or demerit as he deserves. Dismiss as fast as you examine.

AFTERNOON.

2 o'clock. Call to *order*. Mark for *punctuality* as in the morning.

2¼. Order out for *reading*, as in the morning. Mark merits, &c

2½. Order writing on *slate*, as in the morning. Hear monitors of *reading* or *arithmetic* yourself.

3¼. Order monitors of *arithmetic* to stations. Order arithmetic classes to their monitors. Let them recite *intellectual* arithmetic one day, and practice on their *slates* the next.

4 o'clock. Mark merits, and dismiss.

This order of exercises may look formidable, but the teacher is assured that he will understand the routine of the whole business thoroughly in a day or two, and so will the children. It will be necessary, now to give a few miscellaneous directions, which could not conveniently be inserted elsewhere.

In *reading*, let any child who can correct another go above him. But as their anxiety to correct will produce confusion unless regulated, let each who notices a mistake hold up his hand, but not speak untill the monitor tells him. The monitor must let the nearest to the reader speak first, but no one must speak who did not hold up his hand. If any one *mis*-correct, he must go down one for interrupting the reader.

In *writing*, whether on the slates or paper, oblige every child to begin with single letters, the younger scholars because they must learn them of course, and the older scholars because they cannot teach correctly, unless correctly taught the elements. As the monitors will not know how to mend pens for themselves and their classes, you must call them around you at an early day, and teach them in a class. After you have once taught a class to make pens, the younger children will learn without troubling you.

In *spelling*, it is important that you drill the monitors, before employing them to teach classes. For this purpose, call around you the monitors of spelling. Require them to stand with hands behind that they may do the same by their classes. Pronounce the word to be spelled very distinctly. Require the child to pronounce it before he begins to spell. If he spells it wrong, those who discover the error and can correct it, may hold up hands as in reading. The monitor directs the nearest to the speller who held his hand up to correct, and it is desirable in long words that he should point out the other's error before he spells the whole word. If he correct and spell the word rightly, let him go up, and let all who go down spell the word for which they lose their places.

In reviewing to obtain new monitors of spelling, you will omit writing on the slate, and occupy the time usually devoted to that exercise, and spelling at the stations, to the review. This will be long enough, for it will not be necessary to have every word spelled, that has been spelled since the last review. You had better keep a spelling book of your own and mark every word that presents any difficulty with a pencil, and then this will serve as a guide to the monitor of dictation in the selection of words to be written on the slate. Be sure to set a new lesson every day for the spelling classes, and let as many as can spell the same lesson, that more may have a chance to rise to the dignity of monitor.

In *arithmetic* you will be perplexed in several ways. You will find a variety of 'arithmetics' in the school, from Pike's octavo to Temple's primmer. You must use all your influence to have these discarded. Let each child under six years of age be furnished with the Child's Arithmetic, a little intellectual system just published by the teacher of the monitorial school in Boston. As soon as the child is master of this, let him procure 'Colburn's First Lessons of Intellectual Arithmetic,' to which the former is a suitable introduction. Regular lessons can be given in these, and they contain directions for their use.

In *written* arithmetic, introduce if possible Colburn's Sequel. Those who have ciphered considerably must have it, the monitors should use it as a guide in teaching beginners. Not that the use of either of these books is absolutely essential to the introduction of our system, but because, as we said before, in the choice of instruments, it is preferable to select the best.

Pay particular attention to *numeration*. Let the smallest child begin to make the figures, as soon as he has learned to write the alphabet. How the very youngest may be employed in counting you will learn in the Child's Arithmetic above mentioned.

In *grammar* and *geography*, if you use those prepared for the monitorial school in Boston, you will need no other directions than those in the books.

We will recapitulate the titles of such books as have been prepared for the monitorial system, remarking that they are not recommended as containing more information than is to be found in many other books, but as presenting the information in such a way that monitors can use it in teaching their classes.

1st. The Rational Guide to Reading and Spelling, by Wm. B. Fowle. The peculiarity of this spelling book is that the words are better and more minutely classed than in any other, and the reading lessons are adapted to the understandings of children. Price, 25 cents.

2d. Popular Lessons, being selections from the writings of Edgeworth, Barbauld, &c., 50 cents.

3d. The American Preceptor, the Boston improved stereotype edition, 37½ cents, or if preferred,

4th. Scripture Lessons, Boston edition, edited by Wm. B. Fowle. This selection is from both the Old and New Testament, and will be found more suitable for schools than the whole Bible or New Testament. 37½ cents.

5. Pierpont's American First Class Book, for the highest classes. $100.

6. English Grammar, with practical exercises, by Wm. B. Fowle. 20 cents.

7. Practical Geography, by Wm. B. Fowle. 25 cents.

8. A School Atlas of modern date.

9. The Child's Arithmetic. — cts.

10. Colburn's First Lessons. 37 cts.

11. Colburn's Sequel. $100.

12. After the children are well acquainted with the spelling book, the higher classes may be allowed to write lessons from Guy's Orthographical Exercises, an ingenious little book, which ought to be better known. 20 cts.

13. If elocution is taught, the American Speaker, by Wm. B. Fowle.

The above are the nominal prices, but considerable discounts are usually made from them. The books may probably be found in most of the Boston book-stores, but if not easily found, they may be obtained by a direct application to the publishers of this Journal.

We have alluded to *merits* and *class lists*. The system of rewards and punishments our experience recommends is the following. Let a fixed price be established for every exercise; for instance, let an attentive reader be allowed one merit; but if one has been very inattentive let him have a demerit; give to every speller who has missed no word in the lesson *one* merit, if he has missed only one word give him half a merit. If he misses more than three give him a demerit. So in arithmetic, writing and the other branches. Give a monitor half a merit more than the best of his class receives, provided he has done his duty. In fine, let there be a fixed reward, if possible, for every thing, that as little as possible may be left to the judgement of the monitors, and that the children knowing how many merits they are entitled to, as well as the monitor does, may see that he does them justice.

The teacher may be as particular as he pleases in enumerating the branches under which merits are awarded, but we think the following will be sufficiently particular.

Record of Merits, Demerits, &c. for May, 1826.

Names.	Punctuality	Merits for Exercises.	Merits as Monitor.	Demerits.
Ames. W.	IIII ' . .	IIII . . .	IIIII II . .	I .
Barker. J.	II .	II . . .	III . .	IIII. .
Cook. P.	I . .	II . .	IIII . .	II .
Davis. L.	III .	III . . .	IIIII . .	III .
And so on alphabetically.				

Some may prefer a head for each branch. Each demerit is equal to a merit. Therefore at the end of the month add up the merits, and deduct the demerits. You will then have a pretty fair statement of what every scholar has done.

If an injudicious parsimony but too common in those who manage our district schools, can be induced to unbend a little, a few dollars distributed quarterly in rewards will do more towards maintaining the necessary discipline, and encouraging industry, than any species of punishment by the master or the committee. Indeed, as we have observed in regard to other points, although our system may be carried on by the barbarous practice of flogging the body, without attempting to correct or improve the mind, we declare it to be the result of our experience with the worst as well as the best class of our population, that if a child cannot be improved by motives addressed to his moral feelings, corporeal punishment will only make him worse. It is true he may be compelled to submit for a time, but it is with a spirit full of revenge, anger, and other bad passions, which will stifle every good principle he may have possessed, or burst forth again at the first opportunity. We never yet found an advocate of castigation who was not willing to allow that the good effects of it were doubtful, and that 'the more one flogs the more one may.'

When it is ascertained how much money may be expended in prizes, find the value of every merit, and distribute the money, or prizes to that amount, in proportion to the number of merits each scholar has obtained during the month or quarter. This is preferable to fixing a certain value to every merit at first, for you cannot tell how many merits there will be nor what sum it will require to redeem them.

By *punctuality* in our class list, is meant a regular appearance at the hour for opening school. This should always be insisted on, especially in regard to monitors. If a reward for punctuality do not produce an early attendance, let those who come fifteen min-

utes too late receive a demerit or be sent home. Habits of punctuality are of the highest importance to the young, but in many of our common country schools, the master can seldom proceed to business untill an hour after the hour set for opening the school. In one flourishing village of Massachusetts the children, in winter, carry each a stick of wood to school, nor is there any fire in the school room untill a sufficient number of sticks has been collected by this daily contribution. These things ought not so to be.

We shall conclude with one word of advice to school committees. As the success of any system depends upon an impartial exercise of it, and as the system proposed in this manual requires more exercise of the judgement of children than any other, it must be your endeavor to second the exertions of the master. Encourage him to deal impartially with all. Submit your own children entirely to his guidance; allow them no distinction to which their merit does not entitle them. The aristocracy of cities is proverbial, but you must have seen that few country schools are free from family influence. The squire's child must not be in the class of a poor man's son, the clergyman's son must be a monitor whether qualified or not. Frown upon all such distinctions, and recollect that undeserved promotion will not excite your own children to exertion, but will discourage those who have nothing beside their own exertions to depend upon, and who keenly feeling their wrongs, will entertain but a poor opinion of your justice. Be generous towards the teachers you employ. Be careful to select a man of mild temper, and pure morals; and when you have found such a one, let not the whole term of his service be embittered by the reflection that his services are undervalued. How can you expect a man to devote himself to the school under such circumstances? Depend upon it he will give you only the money's worth of his time and exertions, and this is all you can reasonably expect. We mention the subject of salaries, because we believe they are generally too low to induce a gentleman of talents to undertake the charge of a village school, and because to this circumstance, more than to any other, (if we except the short term for which a male teacher is employed,) may be attributed the low standard of education in our common schools. If you cannot afford any additional expense, let a small piece of ground be cultivated annually for the benefit of the school, or let the clergyman and selectmen see that those who have nothing to spare to educate their children, spare nothing for indulgence of some useless or pernicious habit.

THOUGHTS ON THE EDUCATION OF FEMALES.

We happily do not live in an age, when it is necessary to prove either the importance of education, or the propriety of extending it to females. The days are past, when a knowledge of tent-stitch, and the composition of a pudding or cordial was esteemed the chief glory of half the creation. Scarcely more desirable was the opposite era, which enforced the drudgery of accomplishments, often pursued at the expense of true taste and rational knowledge; accomplishments, eventually sacrificed to the household deities, as the axle-tree of the nuptial chariot of the Grecian bride, was anciently broken when she crossed the threshold of her husband. These dynasties reversed each other's decrees,—one, like the Egyptian house of bondage, demanding "brick *without* straw," and the other satisfied with straw *instead* of brick. The females of the present generation, may boast, in the language of judicial astrology, a most auspicious nativity. Science allures them to her temple, and virtue commands them to dedicate to her altar, that influence which they derive from the courtesy of refined society. The genius of their country, as well as the spirit of the age, supplies another stimulant, prompting them to become worthy of a name among the dignified and enlightened daughters of the greatest republic on earth.

It has been remarked in the address contained in the first number of this Journal that "there is already a deep and strong tide of opinion, undermining all that is useless and cumbrous in instruction." Still, with regard to the education of females, theory has outrun practice; and we apprehend that a philosophic eye would discover in the plan of their best seminaries, much which is capable of amendment. But to establish a system of rules, equally applicable to the different meridians of our country, would be impossible. Studies considered requisite to the sex, and methods of pursuing them, must follow in some measure the varying standard of taste, rank, and circumstance. Yet if fashions vary, radical principles are immutable. It would always be safe for the instructer of females to keep steadily in view, the *practical* results of education, to study the mental structure of the pupils, and to blend the good sense of the agriculturist, with the tenderness of the florist, and the spirit of the christian.

To tax the memory, is usually the first step in the rudiments of education. Beside the importance of this faculty in every stage of intellectual progress, it has a separate value to females from its agency in what the immortal poet denominates "household good."

To classify minute, and almost interminable details, and to elicit order and beauty, from what a novice might deem a chaos, is a desirable art. This may be facilitated by the same course of study which is prescribed to remedy a defect of the retentive power, a course of patient demonstration, and regular induction. Thus, those branches of science, which might at first view be pronounced useless to females, rise into importance from the habits of mental discipline which they establish. It was formerly too much the custom to strengthen memory at the expense of understanding, by requiring long lessons verbatim, or more properly, parrot recitations. But a dropsical habit, instead of vigorous health was thus produced:—one power was made to start forth in incorrect proportion, and the symmetry of the mind destroyed. That act of memory which brings readily into use the treasures which it has amassed, should be early cultivated in females, because one important point of their ultimate destination is to be intelligent companions. The classic recollections of a well-stored mind, are powerful adjuncts in conversation, and to habituate them to promptness at every call, the instructer should allow short intervals for rational discourse with the pupils, where the subjects, arguments, and authorities quoted, can have no aid from pre-meditation.

The instructer of females should endeavor to advance their knowledge of human nature. We do not, of course, mean that kind of knowledge which is acquired by a painful observation of vice, or an intimacy with scenes that shock the finer feelings of the soul. From these, it is their privilege to be secluded. But as in the domestic province, they may sometimes be called to manage obdurate materials, to reduce obliquities to the right line of reason, and to soothe discordant spirits to harmony, their task will be greatly facilitated by habits of reverting to those latent springs of action, which unlock the idiosyncrasies of character. Teachers may render the study of history subservient to this point by connecting it with the exercise of divesting the actors on the great map of man, of all factitious ornament, and by a systematic dissection presenting faults, virtues, and probable motives in the simple prominence of truth. This exercise will also be an auxiliary in the formation of a correct judgement, a possession of more intrinsic value to a practical being, than rapid perception, or brilliant fancy. Without it, both intellectual attainments, and fashionable accomplishments, will be as 'sounding brass, or a tinkling cymbal.' Self-culture, or the voluntary effort of mind, is necessary to all who would profit by the discipline of education. It would be in vain that the physician prescribed appropriate medicines, if the patient neglected to observe the correspondent regimen. Self-culture, should be particularly encouraged in females, because its legitimate basis is that self-con-

trol which has affinity with many of their virtues, and most of their duties. To aid it, the instructer should require perseverance, repress irritability, and idle curiosity, and by teaching the mind the pleasure of surmounting obstacles in the path of knowledge, lead it to a more sublime victory over its internal foes. The danger of being superficial is to be guarded against, because its tendency is to nourish vanity, that indigenous production of the 'heart's light soil.' Some have supposed that by substituting the solid pursuits of science, for the tinsel of showy accomplishments, all undue effervescence of mind will be effectually checked. Yet we apprehend that a young lady may be as vain of repeating the technical phrases of the professor, or of chattering in a foreign language, as of rattling the keys of her piano in the finest style, or dancing with the grace of Vestris. In each case the passion for display is gratified. The antidote will be found less in the *nature* of her studies, than in the *depth* of her knowledge.

Yet it will usually be of slight avail for the instructer of females to devise the most judicious system, or with consummate skill adapt it to varieties of taste, temper and talent, unless there exists some degree of domestic co-operation. To elevate the mind for a few hours, and then plunge it into an atmosphere where frivolity reigns, is like training the young vine upward, and then unclasping its tendril to cover it with dust. A powerful intellect may indeed conquer this revulsion, and secure both developement and nurture. Yet still it is to the sanctuary of home, where the elements of character in all stages of their combination are exhibited without disguise, that we are to look for the culture of the affections, and the regulation of moral principles. Without these, we see only a tree unstable at the root, a fruit unsound at the core, the watering of Apollos, or the planting of Paul, without the increase of God.

It is also in the domestic sphere, that physical education generally receives its principal attention. We know not why it should ever be disjoined from intellectual and moral culture, or why it so often knows no longer date than those anxieties which the helplessness of infancy, or the dangers of early childhood create. Great sufferings frequently ensue, from the neglect of those early habits which increase strength, and fortify the constitution. The unfeminine character of those gymnastic exercises which in Europe have been so successfully pursued by male students, entirely preclude females from their benefits. Yet regularity, or at least some appearance of system, may be given to those exercises which are congenial to their state. Health of body has in their case not only the same influence over vigor of mind, as in that of the 'lordly sex,' but is moreover enhanced by that class of considerations which

constituted their sole value in the scale of being, according to the gradations of the politic Lycurgus. Regular habits of walking, or riding on horseback, should be encouraged as far as possible, and in unfavorable weather their houses might be made their gymnasia. Modern education might be improved by a slight infusion of the Spartan contempt of hardship.

It is presumed that young ladies would find their health promoted by attending to the entire arrangement of their own apartments; and that also by relieving their domestic guardians of a part of their pressure of care, the better dispositions of the heart would gain salutary expansion. Were it not for the danger of being accounted Goths or Vandals, we should venture to recommend that long banished article of furniture, the great spinning-wheel.

Should any sprightly young lady honor these pages with her attention, we imagine we can trace the sneer of contempt already rising over her polished brow, and curling her ruby lip. Nevertheless, we proceed in our praises of this despised instrument, patronised in ancient times by noble matrons, and fair princesses, and often in later days 'discoursing most eloquent music,' to the ear of the thrifty husband. An antiquated writer once denominated it 'Hygeia's harp,' and our descant upon its merits is confined to its affinity with health. We have known its moderate use for a few summers, in daily lessons of an hour each, exceedingly useful in counteracting a tendency to pulmonary complaints, by the erect posture, prominence of chest, and general arterial circulation which it induced. We are the more sensitive on the subject of physical welfare, because we are confident that the course of city education too generally, nourishes a sickly delicacy, which if it sooner or later assume not some form of morbid temperament, will yet be sure to lay its withering hand upon energy of character. While the daughters of our mother country, their cheeks glowing in the brisk air of autumn, are performing what we should consider equestrian *feats*, our own fairest and dearest, may be found seated day after day, in alarming proximity to a highly-heated stove, while they hang over the last novel, half in danger of the fate of Niobe. Sedentary habits, and the rust of indolence are permitted to steal over those, to whom education should give 'firmness of nerve, and energy of soul.' The indifference to both luxury and hardship which distinguish a temperate and noble mind, are best acquired in early life, and would be best taught by parental guides, were it not for that false indulgence which too often leads them to yield their offspring a present gratification, at the expense of future good—that spirit of Esau still lingering among us, imitating his traffic but not edified by his repentance.

REVIEWS.

A Grammar of the Greek Language, &c. See No. 5.

(Concluded from p. 302.)

It is well known to every reader, that the principal difference between the two plans of arrangement in our Greek grammars, consists in the manner of classing the nouns and verbs under declensions and conjugations. By the method most generally followed, in the English schools and our own, nouns are arranged under *ten* Declensions, five of the *Simple*, and five of the *Contract* nouns; but by the *modern* or reformed method, all these ten are reduced to three. In like manner the *verbs*, according to the old grammarians, are arranged under thirteen conjugations, namely, six of the *barytone* verbs, three of the *contracts*, or circumflexed, and four of the verbs *in* μι; while by the new system all these conjugations are merged in *two* very general classes, distinguished by their termination, one of the verbs in ω, and the other of the verbs in μι. Some grammarians, indeed, of high authority too, contend that we ought not to admit more than *one* conjugation, that is, in ω; because, say they, the verbs in μι, except in three of their tenses, follow the rules of the verbs in ω. It is, in truth, difficult to perceive, why we should stop at two conjugations, when the reasons urged for that change would require us to carry the reduction of the number still farther. In addition to this general innovation upon the old system, some changes of inferior importance have been suggested by the ingenuity of modern times. The only one, however, which we shall notice on this occasion, is the transposition of two entire tenses, namely, the *perfect* and *pluperfect middle*, from the middle voice, where they have ever been ranked by native grammarians, into the active voice, in which they take the new appellation of *second perfect* and *second pluperfect*. This innovation appears in the valuable grammar of Buttmann, which we have before spoken of. The reasons for this change will be considered hereafter; at present we shall confine our remarks to the new classification of the nouns and verbs.

The new arrangement of the nouns and verbs has greater simplicity, as it is commonly termed, and in certain respects may be considered more philosophical than the ancient; yet when we find that these very general classes of nouns and verbs, even according to the new scheme, are again to be subdivided, it may be doubted

whether there is much positive saving in the number of particulars which are to be learned by the pupil, or in the convenience of their application as he advances in his studies. Changes in the classification and nomenclature of the sciences, especially in mere practical matters connected with them, are always attended with inconveniences; and, to compare small things with great, we may apply to the present subject a remark made by an eminent British statesman and scholar upon certain writers, who were ambitious of discarding an old and well settled term in the Law of Nations, for the sake of introducing one, that should be more etymologically exact, in its stead; 'Perhaps,' says he, 'these learned writers do employ a phrase, which expresses the subject of this law with more accuracy than our common language; but I doubt whether innovations in the terms of science always repay us, by their superior precision, for the uncertainty and confusion which the change occasions.'* The justness of this opinion is strongly felt by every one, who has attempted to instruct in that most delightful and best adapted of all scientific studies to the youthful mind, natural history; in which the unnecessary and licentious departures from the Linnæan arrangement of the several kingdoms of nature, and the introduction of synonymes without number, have so loaded and encumbered that branch of study, as to appal the most resolute pupil, who is not willing to sacrifice every thing to that single pursuit. But to these general remarks we would add a few, which are more immediately applicable to the present question.

The old arrangement of the Declensions and Conjugations is substantially the same which was made by native grammarians of Greece at a period when their literature still retained its vigor, and when even the principles of language were discussed with as much acuteness as ever has been displayed; though certainly not under so many advantages, particularly in etymology, as we now possess by means of our extended acquaintance with the numberless dialects of the globe. Indeed the singularly ingenious and subtile discussions of the philosophers and professed grammarians of antiquity, not wholly unmixed with puerilities, almost lead one to agree with Lord Bacon, when in his ardor for the ancients he delicately recommends a little more modesty in his contemporaries,—'Sane quis facile conjiciat (*utcumque nobis ipsi placeamus*) ingenia priorum seculorum nostris fuisse multo acutiora et subtiliora.'† It may not be altogether useless to bestow a moment's attention on some of the older writers, from whom we have derived our present systems of Greek grammar.

The earliest author, we believe, from whom we have anything

* Mackintosh's Introductory Lecture on the Law of Nations; *in not.*

† De Augm. Scient. vi. 1.

like a practical treatise on this subject, is the grammarian well known to scholars by the name of Dionysius Thrax, who is supposed to have lived just before the Christian era. His very concise treatise, under the common name of Τέχνη Γραμματική, was first published from the manuscript by Fabricius; but the manuscript used by that learned editor was extremely faulty, and his edition, of course, very defective. Villoison, many years after that, made numerous corrections from a manuscript in the Library of St. Mark's, at Venice; but a more complete edition has been lately published by Bekker, in his *Anecdota Græca*, accompanied with a minute and curious Greek *Commentary*, which is compiled from authors of different, though very early periods. In the remains of this Treatise, as it has come down to our time, we do not find any systematic view of the *Declension of Nouns*. Yet, as we find in the later grammarians a system of Declensions, corresponding to our usual arrangement, just as their Conjugations of the verbs do, and as no intimations are given by these successive writers, that they are promulgating anything new or original, either in respect to the declensions or conjugations, we may fairly presume, that they have done no more than to copy their system of the former, as we know they have that of the latter, from writers of high antiquity. Now in respect to the *Conjugations*, we have in this Treatise of Dionysius Thrax a systematic view of them, which will doubtless surprise many readers, from its extraordinary conformity, not to say identity, both in its principles and its very examples, with that which has been universally taught in England and in our own country, till within a short period. This author says,

'Conjugation is the systematic (or consecutive) inflexion of verbs. There are six conjugations of barytone verbs, which are distinguished,
The first by β or φ or π or πτ, as λείβω, γράφω, τέρπω, κόπτω;
The second, by γ or κ or χ or κτ, as λέγω, πλέκω, τρέχω, τίκτω;
The third, by δ or θ or τ, as ἁδ'δω, πλήθω, αὐτω;
The fourth, by ζ or σσ, as φράζω, νύσσω, ὀρύσσω;
The fifth, by the four unchangeable letters, λ, μ, ν, ρ, as πάλλω, νέμω, κρίνω, σπείρω;
The sixth, by ω pure, as ἱππεύω, πλέω, βασιλεύω, ἀκούω.
But some introduce a seventh conjugation, in ξ and ψ, as ἁλίξω and ἵψω.
Of the circumflexed verbs, there are three conjugations, which are distinguished,
The first, in the second and third person singular, by the dipthong ει, as νοῶ, νοεῖς, νοεῖ;
The second, by the dipthong ῳ (the ι being written but not sounded) as βοῶ, βοᾷς, βοᾷ;
The third, by the dipthong οι, as χρυσῶ, χρυσοῖς, χρυσοῖ.
Of the verbs ending in μι, there are four conjugations; of which

The first is deduced from the first of the circumflexed verbs, as from τιθῶ comes τίθημι;
The second, from the second of the same, as from ἱστῶ ἵστημι;
The third, from the third of the same, as from διδῶ comes δίδωμι;
The fourth, from the sixth of the barytones, as from πήγνυω comes πήγνυμι.'*

We have made the larger extract from this curious work, because it is not in the hands of every reader in this country, and because we have persuaded ourselves, that all who take an interest in these inquiries, will feel no little gratification in seeing an authentic monument of that grammatical arrangement, which native Greeks themselves devised two thousand years ago, and which has served as the guide to most of us in the studies of our childhood. A system, which presents such claims as this does to the regard of every scholar, ought not to be demolished, except for the most urgent reasons.

This very ancient arrangement, which Dionysius doubtless copied from authors still more ancient, so far as we have traces of anything relative to the subject, was followed by all the Greek grammarians down to the period of the revival of letters; when it was brought into Italy and other parts of Europe, by the illustrious and learned Greek exiles from Constantinople, and was gradually adopted by the scholars of every country. It served as the basis of the celebrated grammars of Clenardus, Antesignanus, Sylburgius, and others, which in their turn have been made the groundwork of subsequent publications. In England, this system has been retained to the present day in the justly celebrated public schools of Eton, Westminster, and some others; though a few teachers have lately endeavored to introduce the 'new method,' which has been more followed on the Continent of Europe.

The introduction of the new system of declensions and conjugations has been generally ascribed, though not without some doubt, to the continental grammarian Weller; whose work, originally published in 1635, under the title of *Grammatica Græca Nova*, has served as the model of the grammars, which are now used in Germany and some other parts of the Continent. The same plan, in substance, was afterwards, in 1655, adopted in the celebrated *Port Royal* Grammar, which has had as high authority in France as that of Weller has in Germany; and this French work, according to M. Gail, if his characteristic national feelings have not led him into an error, 'opened the way for the illustrious scholars of Holland.'†

* *Dionys. Thrac. Gram. ap. Bekkeri Anecd. Græc.* p. 633.
† Gail's Grammaire Grecque. Pref. p. i.

It may not be uninstructive to take a very cursory view of the reasoning by which the change is defended.

The foundation of the argument, as stated by Weller himself, is, that wherever there is no difference of *terminations*, there ought to be no difference of declension or conjugation; and, as in the five contracted declensions, and in the circumflexed verbs, the terminations are not different from the simple nouns and the barytone verbs, there ought not to be any difference in the manner of declining and conjugating them. Now this mode of reasoning has a defect, which is not very uncommon; it proves too much; because if we apply it, for example, to our own language, we shall demolish at once our whole system of English grammar; we must extinguish our cases of nouns, and almost every distinction of number, and mode, and tense, in all the verbs of our language; and the same thing may be said in respect to other languages. Now when the Greek grammarians established their declensions and conjugations, they were not governed by the *terminations* alone; they took into view at the same time other distinctions, which, undoubtedly, were found convenient in practice. In the nouns, for example, besides the terminations, the circumstance of their having an *equal* or *unequal* number of syllables in the oblique cases, determined the class in which they should be placed; their verbs too were classed according to other relations, than the mere terminations. And, if we did not know from the practice of the Greek writers themselves, we might learn from the observations of the Roman grammarians, that the Greeks proceeded on a different principle from the Romans (from whom we have derived some of our opinions on these points) in their system of conjugations; for Priscian says,—'Conjugatio est consequens verborum declinatio, cujus regula apud Græcos quidem tam *consonantibus* quam *vocalibus* comprehenditur. Consonantibus quidem in his verbis, quæ βαρύτονα appellant, hoc est, ante finem habentia accentum; vocalibus vero in circumflexis; apud nos vero in *solis vocalibus* secundæ personæ ad imitationem circumflexorum.'*

Now when a plan of grammatical arrangement has been once established by *native* writers, and its nomenclature and divisions become incorporated and interwoven with the whole fabric of their criticism and lexicography, whether the arrangement shall be strictly philosophical or not, it is hardly worth while for *foreigners* to attempt to make improvements upon it. If we should kindly offer our assistance to the French nation in new modelling their grammatical system, which is quite as unphilosophical as our own, or as that of the Greeks, we should hardly be likely to make their grammarians

* Priscian. lib. viii, cap. 17, tom. i, p. 426, edit. Krehl, Lips. 1819.

sensible of the obligation we were conferring upon them; and if, on the other hand, the whole body of French philologists should undertake to form an English Grammar for us, they would probably make but an awkward piece of work; for, however beautiful their grammar might be in *theory*, it would inevitably be deficient in those particulars, which would be the most necessary to us *in practice*. French critics make but a sorry figure in handling our language, as we too, it must be confessed, do in managing theirs; and we shall hardly have a right to expect much benefit from the lucubrations of the common herd of their grammarians upon the English tongue, when their learned Encyclopedists are so insensible to its force and harmony, as to suppose, that English verse consists of nothing but a definite number of syllables without regard to rythm or cadence, and, accordingly, to murder the familiar lines of Roscommon,

> 'The weighty bullion of one sterling line,
> Drawn to French wire, would through whole pages shine,'

by metamorphosing them into the following jargon—

> 'A weighty Bullion of one sterling line,
> Drawn to French wire, should through one page shine.'*

If it be necessary to reform our grammars, either of the Greek, Latin, or English languages, in respect to the particulars now under consideration, why should we not make the reform more thorough? The very first and fundamental division of language, into eight or nine parts of speech, is wholly unphilosophical. An able writer of the present day says of it, that 'however general and convenient in a popular view, it is by no means to be admitted into a philosophical grammar;'† and Horne Tooke, with his usual decision, affirms, that no other classess of words are necessary than *nouns*, and *verbs*, and *abbreviations*, as he terms them; he adds too, that 'you may make as many parts of speech as you please, two, or twenty, or more.'‡ The same difficulties and objections have occurred to the writers on Greek and Latin grammar, in all ages. Sanctius, in the sixteenth century, says of the diversity of opinions respecting the parts of speech,—'in quibus tanta est inconstantia Grammaticorum, ut *nihil certi* nobis adhuc potuerint constituere;'§ and Quintilian, when he says, on the same point, 'de numero parum convenit,' only repeats

* Encyclopédie, Art. *Langue Angloise.*

† Rees' Cyclopæd. art. Grammar, column 5.

‡ Diversions of Purley, vol. i, p. 37, Amer. edit.

§ Minerva, lib. i, cap. 2.

what had been said for ages before; 'veteres enim,' he adds, 'quorum fuerunt Aristoteles et Theodectes *verba* modo et *nomina* et *convinctiones* tradiderunt.'* The latter Stoics made *five* parts of speech; others again, among whom was the very learned Varro, reckoned but *two*,—'Partes orationis sunt duæ, si item, ut Dion, in treis diviserimus res quæ verbeis adsignificantur.'† Another class of writers, with the Oriental grammarians, make three parts of speech. It is, too, a matter of no little curiosity to observe the difference of opinion, as to the relative importance and dignity of the several parts of speech. Some scholars, of no common degree of acuteness and of very great learning, maintain with Scaliger, that the *interjection* is the first and principal part; while Sanctius, the Horne Tooke of his age, affirms it to be no part of speech at all! as he also contemptuously hurls the whole body of *pronouns* from their old station in language. Again, some writers say, with Condillac, that 'the verb *to be* is properly *the only verb*' in human speech, and consider it as essential to it; yet many of the aboriginal languages of our own continent, and some of those in the South Sea Islands, are wholly destitute of that verb, and consequently are deficient in one of the *essentials* of language!

Our learned countryman, Mr. Webster, who has spent his life in the study of language, feeling the same difficulties which have puzzled preceding grammarians, has fearlessly discarded the old divisions of the parts of speech, and in his 'Philosophical and *Practical* Grammar of the English Language,' has rejected the old nomenclature of *articles*, *nouns*, *pronouns*, &c, and substituted one that he considers to be more philosophical. 'The term *article*,' he says 'is unmeaning and inapplicable' to that class of words; '*substantive* is not sufficiently distinctive nor intelligible, and *noun* is not readily understood by learners;' the term *pronoun* is still 'more exceptionable;' '*adjective*' is equally applicable to the adverb and even to other parts of speech; and even the term '*verb*' is not sufficiently descriptive. He therefore devises a variety of substitutes for these common terms; for *noun* and *substantive* he gives us the term *name*; for *pronouns*, *substitutes*; for *adjectives*, *attributes*; for *adverbs*, *modifiers*, which he observes is 'well-formed, like *magnifiers*, and happily expressive of their use;' for *conjunction* he substitutes *connective*; the old term *verb*, however, he retains with apparent reluctance, because he cannot find a new one that satisfies him.‡

But a scheme of reform must not stop at the mere nomenclature. A very large class of words, frequently called *particles*, including

* Quintil. lib. i, cap. 4; p. 76, ed. Spalding.

† Varro, lib. vii, p. 106, ed. Bipont.

‡ Philosoph. and Pract. Gram. 1807. Pref. p. 6 and 7.

conjunctions and prepositions, are now agreed to be in reality *nouns* and *verbs*, according to the theory, which has been generally promulgated as the discovery of Horne Tooke; who, according to Dr. Darwin 'has unfolded by a single flash of light the whole theory of language, which had so long lain buried beneath the learned lumber of the schools.' These words must therefore be no longer ranked as heretofore, but must be placed on the catalogue of *verbs*, as other irregulars or defectives are.* Yet if such a new arrangement and nomenclature should be adopted, in our own language, and much more in a foreign or dead one, it may well be questioned, whether we should, practically speaking, gain anything by it.

Further; besides the imperfections in the fundamental division of the parts of speech, we shall find extremely discordant opinions among grammarians, as to the subordinate divisions of *cases*, *tenses*, &c, not only in Greek and Latin, but in our own and other modern languages. In respect to the *cases*, for example, the common opinion is, that we ought not to admit any more than there are *different terminations* of the noun. According to this, our later grammarians, ambitious to come as near as possible to a philosophic stand-

* We have said, that this theory has been generally considered as Horne Tooke's; but he was not the original author of it, though in our own language he was the first who applied it with success. It is possible, indeed, that he was not indebted to any other writer for it, except so far as the hints of Junius and Skinner might aid him. Yet it is a fact known to scholars, that the same theory had been established and applied, on the Continent of Europe, to the *Greek* language, before Tooke published his work in England. Those persons, who have not extended their inquiries beyond the writers upon our own language, may perhaps be gratified to see some of the evidence of this fact; and we accordingly subjoin the following exposition of the theory from the preface to the learned Hoogeveen's *Doctrina Particularum Linguæ Græcæ*:—

'Primam, ut reliquarum, ita Græcæ quoque linguæ originem fuisse simplicissimam, ipsa natura ac ratio docent, primosque ὀνόματος nomina, quibus res, et verba, quibus actiones exprimerent, *non vero particulas instituisse*, probabile est. ... Natura, inquam, ipsa docet, particulis antiquiora esse nomina et verba. Neque mea hæc, neque nova est de particularum minus antiqua origine opinio; suffragantem habeo Plutarchum ad illam quæstionem, quæ inter Platonicas postrema est—*Cur Plato dixerit orationem ex nominibus et verbis misceri?* Ubi ait, *probabile esse, homines ab initio* particularum *orationem distinguentium eguisse*. Hinc non admodum est obscurum, quæ res primam particulis originem præbuerit. Illa enim nomina et verba, quæ antiquissimi una cum ipsorum regimine mediæ orationi inseruerunt, sequens ætas, brevitati studens, neglecto regimine, sive mutilata structura, clanculum tamen intellecta, nuda reliquerunt, et parte sui destituta, tanquam vestigia læsæ sententiæ *Ita revera ipsæ particulæ olim fuerunt vel nomina vel verba*, ut clare patebit, ubi de singularum particularum originibus dicam.... *Statuamus ergo, particulas in sua infantia fuisse vel verba vel nomina*,' etc. Tooke has rendered essential services to English philology; but, as his knowledge of the Northern dialects was not extensive, and as he was entirely unacquainted with the *Oriental* tongues, whence all the European dialects ancient and modern have been derived, he was deficient in the most necessary qualifications for pursuing that part of language to which he directed so much of his attention—*etymology*.

ard, have admitted but three cases in English; yet here they are obliged to tolerate a trifling aberration from theory, for the sake of convenience in practice; for they give a third case to *nouns* as well as pronouns (though the former, upon their theory, admit of only two,) under the name of *objective* case; a name which an able writer, before cited, stigmatises as 'unmeaning.'*

Now it would be more exact to say, that nouns in English have but *two* cases, and pronouns, *three*. But, as the writer just quoted observes, there are naturally five cases (the vocative being always a nominative) to denote the most usual relations in language; and we may ask, of what importance is it, whether those relations are denoted by a syllable or inflexion placed either at the end of a word, or at the beginning; and of what consequence is it, whether such syllable is incorporated with the noun, as in Greek and Latin, or stands apart from it in the shape of a preposition, or particle, as in English? Why, for example, in our nouns may we not say, that *of man*, or *ofman* (for we write them separately without any necessity) is a genitive case just as much as *man's* i. e. *man-is;* and that both of these forms are as legitimate genitives as *homin-is* in Latin? In our English verbs, too, instead of imperfectly attempting to regulate the tenses by the diversity of inflexion, and thus admitting but two or three tenses, as some reformers do, why should we not have our five or six, corresponding to the grammatical arrangement of other languages, even if we must form some of the tenses by means of auxiliaries? May not, for instance, the compound forms *have loved* and *had loved*, or, as we might write them, *haveloved* and *hadloved*, with the inflection at the beginning, be as properly denominated perfect and pluperfect tenses in English grammar, as the Latin *amavi* and *amaveram*, in which the inflexion is at the end? In the same way, we have never been able to discern, why some of our grammarians have so obstinately refused to acknowledge *passive* verbs in English. Are not the compounded forms *am loved* and *was loved*, or, to write them in single words *amloved* and *wasloved*, as strictly passive verbs as the Latin forms *amor* and *amabar*? It is wholly unimportant, whether the inflexions are written separately from the radical or not; whether they precede or follow it; and whether they still remain entire and significant words, like our auxiliaries and prepositions, or, as in Greek and Latin, mere fragments of original words, now melted down and incorporated with the radical.

The assumed philosophical principle, that the termination is the essential distinction of a case, has given rise to a curious question, whether the *nominative* is properly a case; and, 'what is very singular,' says the able French grammarian *Beauzée*, 'the decision is in

* Rees' Cyclop. Art. Grammar, col. 21.

the negative!' 'These two excellent grammarians,' he adds, alluding to Lancelot and Du Marsais, 'agree that the cases of a noun consist in its different terminations. Now it is certain, that nouns have a termination in the nominative as well as in the other cases, for a noun without a termination is impossible.'* He further justly remarks, that 'the distinction of cases is not universal in all languages, and the system is not uniform in those which have admitted them; but it *may exist* in all, because it does in some; and that should be sufficient to make it the foundation of a general theory, even if we should derive no other advantage from it, than the aid it would afford us in exhibiting the reasons for the different processes pursued in different idioms.' †

Conformably to these views of the subject, we have always regretted, that our English grammarians have departed from the Greek and Latin cases and tenses, and we may add from the grammatical arrangement adopted by the modern nations of Europe, in whose languages generally those cases and tenses are retained, notwithstanding they must be formed by prepositions and auxiliaries. We should, if the matter were now *res integra*, prefer even an *English* grammar with the six cases; as was in fact adopted in a useful little work of this kind, published a few years ago by Walker, that truly practical writer, who, whatever may be the estimate of his genius, has done more real service to the student, than any of his predecessors in the same department of philology. His remarks, on the point now under consideration, are well deserving of the reader's attention. He says—

'But it will be naturally demanded, of what use to an English scholar is retaining the Latin terms and forms of construction? It may be answered, that if these terms and forms of construction are as intelligible as any we can substitute in their stead, why should we depart from the ancient, and received grammatical language of Europe, without deriving any advantage from the change? If, indeed, the Latin terms and forms of construction were much more difficult, than such as must be substituted to supply their place, the objection would be a very strong one; but this is not really the case. In the declension of nouns we must have two cases, and in that of pronouns, three. Where would be the difficulty or embarrassment in extending the cases to six, the number of them in Latin? The answer will be, because we have no such cases in our language; and therefore why should we create them? It may be replied, that a case or termination of a noun adds no more to its signification, than a preposition prefixed to it; the difficulty therefore of adopting these additional cases is ideal; three more cases would be as easily learned, as the two or three we are

* Grammaire Générale, tom. ii, p. 103, ed. 1767. † Ibid. p. 103.

obliged to adopt; *and by doing so, we speak the general grammatical language of all the scholars in Europe;* for it must be observed, that *general utility*, and not philosophical or abstract propriety, is the great object of Grammar, as well as of language.

'What has been observed of the cases of nouns is applicable to the declensions. We are obliged to form nouns into classes, according to their several modes of forming their plurals; and as we have five varieties of this formation, where would be the impropriety of calling each of these modes a declension? I greatly mistake, if putting each of these varieties in a table declined, with all their cases, will not make a better and more lasting impression of the plurals and genitives of nouns, which are so often confounded, than the short transient way in which they are generally mentioned.

'The moods of Verbs in Latin, except the optative, have been generally retained by some of the most respectable English grammarians; notwithstanding the strong reasons which may be brought to prove, that we have no more than one mood in English. To abolish these moods would be certainly to coin our grammar anew; but it is highly probable, that what it might gain by this in metaphysical value, it would lose in general currency.

'It will scarcely be questioned, that for boys who are to have a Latin education, an English grammar in the Latin form would be by far the most eligible.'*

But we have one or two further remarks to make on these changes in grammatical systems. After we commence the work of reform in the parts of speech, in the cases and declensions, we must go on and remodel our systems of moods and tenses, and, perhaps in Greek, the arrangement of the *numbers* also; for on this latter point some acute grammarians have doubted, whether we ought to admit the *dual* numbers in that language.† As to the *moods*, in Greek, according to our usual divisions, they are made the class or *genus*, and the *tenses* are subdivisions or *species* under them, which is in fact reversing the order of things. Accordingly in one grammar of high repute, that of Professor Moor, of Glasgow, the tenses are more philosophically made the genus or class and the moods are arranged as subdivisions under them. His rule is, 'Tempora habent modos, numeros et personas.'

One additional remark upon the *conjugations* shall finish what we have to say, on the particulars now under consideration. If we may now mould the *Greek* conjugations anew by the terminations alone, as they appear in the *written* language, we should also do the same thing in *Latin;* and then, instead of four conjugations, we should

* Walker's Outlines of English Grammar, Preface, p. v.

† See the Arguments in Fischer's Animadversiones ad Welleri Gram. tom. i. p. 349.

long [illegible] ending in ν, which we should only have to subdivide according to the long or short vowel, or the difference in the vowel, preceding that termination. But the truth is, that in the original arrangement of the conjugations, regard was not had to the *written* language alone, but to the *spoken* language also; in Latin, to the long and short vowels, and in Greek, to the accents, whether circumflex or barytone; and it should not be overlooked, that the old grammarians of both those nations distinguish the conjugations, not by the terminations of the infinitive, nor by the *first* person singular of the indicative, but by the *second*.

It is the less worth our while to break up the ancient grammatical arrangements, particularly in Greek, because we may yet find them of material use in *Comparative Philology*. Late investigations into the languages of the globe have shown affinities that were not dreamed of in the last century. The Sanscrit, that fruitful parent of so many dialects, as everybody knows at this day, is ascertained to have a striking affinity with the Greek, not only in etymology but in its syntax; and there no longer remains a doubt, that the Greek syntax had its origin in the Sanscrit. Now, when we find in the latter, not only voices corresponding to the active, passive, and middle in Greek, but also a similar class of verbs in *mi*, inflexions corresponding to those of the Greek verbs, the same persons of the verb denoted by the same letters, past tenses formed with augments, and other extraordinary resemblances, which, as a learned writer observes, prove the Greek and Latin to have been cast in the same mould with the Sanscrit, we had better pause, before we strike off at a blow the great advantages that we now possess in having grammatical systems, which, practically speaking, are common to so many of the languages of man.

We intended to discuss in this place the other innovation in Greek grammar, to which we have before alluded; that is, the transposition of the *perfect* and *pluperfect* middle into the active voice, and there giving them the new names of *second* perfect and *second* pluperfect; but we have room for only one remark, which is, that we do not perceive, why it is not quite as well to let those tenses retain their ancient place in the middle voice, and to inform the pupil, that they are generally, perhaps always, used in an active sense, as to be obliged to teach him that certain other tenses, such as aorists and perfects, are sometimes used actively or passively according to circumstances, or that the *present* tenses of certain verbs are used like *futures;* with various other anomalies, or exceptions, which will forever prevent a strict classification in the grammar of this language.

From the preceding remarks the reader will have perceived that, of the two works at the head of this article, we should give the

preference, if we must choose between these two alone, to the Gloucester Grammar, as a school book for our country. But we frankly say, that if the University had not originally selected this, we should have considered it quite as well to have adopted, in an English translation, and with a few additions to the syntax, and some illustrative notes, either Ward's edition of the *Westminster Grammar*, or the *Eton Grammar*. We have good reasons for believing too, that this would have been the choice of the distinguished Greek scholar now at the University, to whom we have before alluded.* The Gloucester Grammar, it is well known, differs from these in the number of conjugations, and a few other particulars of less importance; which changes, upon the principles above discussed, we cannot consider as having been demanded by any urgent reasons. And though we have already extended this article to a much greater length than we ever intended, we cannot forbear adding here the judicious observations of a solid English scholar, made at the time when Valpy's Grammar was published. After some general commendation of that work, he says;

'At the same time, and with all due deference to the great authorities both at home and abroad from whom I differ, I can never give my entire approbation to this or to any other Grammar, which deviates from the established number of Declensions and Conjugations, as taught and referred to by the Greek grammarians themselves. There can be but one reason for this deviation, and that is, to assist the scholar. It is worth while, therefore, to ascertain how much his labor is abridged by the consolidation of Declensions and Conjugations. If we compare the *Accidents* in Dr. Valpy's Grammar, with those in the Eton Grammar, and leave out of consideration the notes in both, it may be asserted, that there are not *ten* pages of text to be learned less in one Grammar than in the other. This, therefore, is the just amount of labor saved to the pupil. Now let me ask, what is the value of this saving to a boy, whose time is not very precious, and whose memory is fresh and active, and cannot well be too much exercised? But are we sure, that even this saving is a real and clear gain? On the contrary, when he is an adult and comes to the reading of the Greek Scholiasts, Commentators, and Grammarians, will he not find them perfectly unintelligible, in all their grammatical allusions, upon the principles of the new Grammar? The old Grammar must be got by heart, at last, by those who would understand the old Grammarians; and surely it is much better to learn their grammar at first, and once for all, at little or no waste of time and trouble, than after-

* Since these remarks were written, we have had the satisfaction of receiving a communication from the eminent scholar alluded to in p. 302 by which we find that we were not mistaken in the general statement here made of his opinions upon this subject.

wards at a very great one. It is making two scaffoldings necessary, where one alone might be sufficient.'*

With these views of the subject, we cannot but consider it as a great misfortune, that any of our principal colleges should have countenanced a departure from the old system, which had been so long followed in this country; but above all, that the conductors of those institutions should not have agreed among themselves in selecting the same elementary work. We cannot but still flatter ourselves, that they will one day concur; and we hope every teacher in the country will co-operate with them in the adoption of some one grammar, that shall not be changed, at least, in our day.† Under the present diversity of works of this kind, the students, that meet at any one of our colleges from every part of the United States, lose all benefit of having a common technical language; and, under the changes which are continually making, parents, who have been taught by one grammar, are deprived of the means of aiding the progress of their own children from the same cause.

Frequent changes in elementary works of any kind, are attended with the most mischievous effects: they occasion an actual retardation of the whole community for a time. The truth is, there are

* Classical Journal, vol. xii, p. 312, notes.

† We hope, too, for the reputation of our country, that we shall never again see an edition of a Grammar, or any other Greek book, published under the sanction of our Colleges, without the *Accents*. Both the editions now before us are without them; though we do not know that the Colleges are in any way responsible for it: we trust they are not. Our English brethren have been obliged to bear the taunts and sneers of the Continental scholars, on account of 'the unfortunate instance of the Oxford Theocritus,' as Bishop Horsley calls it with no little mortification, and a few other Greek publications without accents; and it is truly surprising, that we should be willing to encounter their jeers and reproaches for the same cause. This same whimsical notion of *simplifying*, as it is called, induced Masclef in France, and Parkhurst in England, and some followers of them in our own country, to teach the *Hebrew* language without the Masoretic points; but the opinion and practice of our best Hebrew scholars are fast correcting this affectation of improvement. In respect to Greek, we wish the advice of those eminent scholars, Wyttenbach and Porson, were a little more listened to.

'In *accentibus* vero,' says Wyttenbach, 'ne turbaretur eo magis cavimus, quod eorum observatione pars haud contemnenda accuratæ rationis grammaticæ continetur; ad cujus negligentiam subinde quoque magistros adeo proclives videmus, ut Græcum locum, vel prave positis, vel omnino omissis, accentibus, scribentes et edentes, eum sui quasi imaginem stuporis, prodere videantur. *Wyttenbach. Selecta Princip. Historic. Prafat.*

And Porson, with his accustomed tone of independence and contempt of blockheads, says;

'Siquis igitur vestrûm (sc. adolescentium) ad accuratam Græcarum literarum scientiam aspirat, is probabilem sibi *accentuum* notitiam quàm maturrime comparet, in propositoque perstet, scurrarum dicacitate et stultorum irrisione immotus.' *Porson. Medea, in Not.*

many things of a purely practical nature, in the common wants of social life, and in the acquisition of the knowledge which is to administer to those wants, which are the *best* of their kind, merely because they have been long established. It would, to take one example for many, be more *philosophical* to begin our common calendar at the equinoxes, as that lively nation, the French, once did, and then we might have our 'gipsy-jargon' of 'prairial' and 'floreal', or any other childish names, which our less lively imaginations could devise. Yet, what man of common sense would exchange for it our present old fashioned calendar with its rude heathen names? We might, again, as was proposed a few years ago by one of the ingenious and patriotic *savans* of our country, determine to adopt a new *first meridian*, instead of making use of the one already established in that nation, who use the same noble language with ourselves, which is daily spreading over the globe, and which has already so largely contributed to the diffusion of the arts and sciences, and civilisation among the various families of man; and we might thus most effectually lend our aid, in confounding the *common language* of the nautical and scientific men in both countries. Yet what man of reflection is there, who has either given his own attention to this fanciful scheme, or has read the well deserved animadversions upon it, by the distinguished astronomer before alluded to, once also a practical navigator himself, that would not resist such a project*—a project, that would tend only to the injury of science, and to useless embarrassments in the intercourse between the two nations, especially that intercourse which will necessarily take place, between the great numbers of nautical men of both countries, on the ocean and elsewhere?

In fine; with respect to the classification or arrangement of the subjects of human knowledge, we may ask, what can be more unphilosophical than that of our own alphabet, the repository of all knowledge, or what more imperfect in its constituent parts? The letters are neither arranged according to their resemblance in shape, nor the organic formation of their sounds; to represent some sounds we have too many letters, and for some letters too many sounds; and then, again, we have some double letters, which denote but one sound, though absurdly called *dipthongs*, and we have some single letters, denoting two sounds, which we as inconsistently class among the *vowels*. Yet this same alphabet, imperfect and unphilosophical as it is, now serves as the basis of the most convenient arrangement for dictionaries of languages, encyclopedias of the sciences, and digests of all our law, physic, and divinity, and

* See the Monthly Anthology, vol. ix, p. 245, and vol x. p. 40.

every other portion of human knowledge. But we forbear any further illustrations of this point.

From practical considerations of this nature, therefore, we confess that we have ever been disinclined to make any innovations upon the general arrangements of the Greek and Latin Grammars, which we received from our mother country, and which have been in use from the first settlement of our own. We do not think the gain in philosophical exactness is a compensation for the practical inconveniences flowing from such changes. We should apply to this subject a remark of Vossius,—'Verum *philosophi* quidem est spectare rerum naturam; et *grammatico* in talibus non tam dispiciendum quid potuerit fieri quam factum quid sit.'*

Now a work to be adopted in our country should be one, constructed upon a plan with which our teachers are already in some measure acquainted; as they are by five and twenty years' practice with the Gloucester Grammar; it should also be copious enough to embrace a certain portion of critical matter, for the benefit of those instructers, who have not access to good libraries; in which case the parts intended for pupils, either during the first or subsequent times of their going over it, may be distinguished by a difference of type. The learned translator of Buttmann's Grammar justly observes in his preface, that 'if the grammar should be the first book put into the learner's hands, it should also be the last to leave them;' and 'it must therefore combine elementary principles with critical detail.' And it is a just remark of the learned *Krigel*, 'that it is of no small advantage, when we are learning the rules of grammar, to use *one book only*, and not to begin with compendiums, epitomes, or any books of that sort, and then have recourse to larger and more copious works.'†

We may add, too, that with a view to the general advancement of learning, we should think it desirable, other things being equal, to adopt an elementary work of the kind now under consideration, which should be common to ourselves and that people, who speak the same language, and whom we cannot but regard with feelings somewhat different from those we entertain towards *foreigners*. It is true, that with the exception of some doubts, which we hardly dare intimate, in regard to certain questions of mere taste, we entertain the most profound reverence for the science and literature of the continental nations of Europe, especially of that wonderful people the Germans, who have traversed with giant stride the whole expanse of human knowledge. But, to say nothing of those imperative claims, which the great cause of civil liberty has at the

* De Analogia, iii. cap. 2.

† Krigel's Pref. to Weller's Grammar.

present day upon the co-operation of the two freest nations of the globe, we think there are to be found, in the science and literature of England, sufficient reasons against severing the old and natural ties, which have so long bound us to our English kindred. Has the *science* of a nation, which produced a Newton, become unworthy of our notice since the age which his name alone has immortalised? Look at the opinion of Baron Zach, a foreigner, supported as we know it to be by our American astronomer, in regard to the very sublime of the sciences,—that 'if any one should assert that our astronomical tables would be equally perfect, if *the other hundred and thirty European observatories* (out of England) *had never existed*, he would be very well able to support his assertion, though at first view it might appear extravagant.'* Is her *literature* less deserving of our study than her *science?* In the department of classical literature, which has been more immediately in our view on the present occasion, look at the illustrious catalogue of her Bentleys, her Porsons, her Parrs, her Burneys, with others whose authority is respected by the proudest continental scholars. No; long may it be, before we throw away the treasures of science and literature, which we can now command without being obliged to possess ourselves of them by the clumsy instrument of a foreign tongue. The language and literature of England are ours; we draw the lessons of wisdom from her historians, we feel the inspiration of her poets, and our bosoms kindle at the lofty and swelling sentiments of liberty, which animate her orators and statesmen; and, leaving to politicians the discussion of the stormy questions, which belong to their province, we can, as lovers of learning, respond with all the sincerity and ardor, which was felt by one of our own writers,† when he applied to her the glowing language of antiquity,

> Salve, magna Parens frugum, Saturnia tellus,
> Magna virûm.

* See North American Review, No. 47, p. 320.

† Walsh's Letter on the Genius and Dispositions of the French Government.

The literary and scientific pursuits which are encouraged and enforced in the university of Cambridge, [in England,] *briefly described and vindicated. By the Rev. Latham Wainewright, A. M., F. A. S., of Emmanual College*, &c. London, 8vo., pp. 100.

Cambridge Classical Examinations. Cambridge, 1824: 8vo. pp. 149. [*By the Very Rev. James Henry Monk, late Regius professor of Greek, in the university of Cambridge, and now Dean of Peterborough.*]

It is a remarkable fact, and well deserving the attention of every friend to American literature, that although certain speculative writers in our country attach but little importance to a familiar acquaintance with the classic authors of antiquity, yet in the land of our ancestors, and in all other parts of Europe, where the human intellect is the most highly cultivated, the want of that knowlege is considered to be nothing less than disgraceful. We have now lying before us some remarks of a sensible *Scottish* writer, who feels the pressure of public opinion in relation to this subject so strongly, that he thinks it necessary to make a formal vindication of his countrymen against the 'severe reproaches' thrown out against them for their deficiencies in classical learning. These reproaches he admits to be 'to a certain degree just;' yet, while he acknowledges that they were but too well deserved some years ago, he states as a well known fact that classical literature has lately made a '*rapid progress*' in Scotland; and in conclusion he remarks—'we assert therefore without fear of detection in an error, that classical literature is *greatly upon the increase* in this country,' and that 'from the scientific manner in which it is now taught, and the comparative facility and accuracy with which it may be acquired, joined to juster views of its importance, and *the increasing demand for it in teachers*, the *opprobrium*, which has been somewhat untenderly heaped upon us, will speedily be removed.'*

We have made the larger extract from this European writer, for the sake of presenting the reader with the simple matter of fact which he states—*that classical learning is greatly on the increase in that part of the world*, and that there is *an increasing demand for it, as a qualification in the instructers of youth*—facts, which are in direct contradiction to the random assertions made by superficial and ill-informed writers on this side of the Atlantic, who boldly affirm that classical literature has long been *declining* in the old world.

In *England*, too, we observe the same solicitude to defend the university of *Cambridge*, (we hope its namesake here may never

* Edinburgh Monthly Review, for March, 1821.

be in the like danger,) against the 'opprobrium' which some of its enemies had endeavored to cast upon it, by unjustly charging it with neglecting this essential part of education.

In the first publication, which is at the head of this article, and which contains a particular account of the literary and scientific pursuits at that university, we find the following strong language:

'It has been often asserted, but has never been yet proved, that classical literature, so far from experiencing proper encouragement at Cambridge, is both despised and neglected; and it has been falsely imagined, that he who there aspires to academical distinction must relinquish the haunts of the Muses, and forever renounce the society of the poets, the orators, and the sages of Greece and Rome, who had been the companions of his earlier days, and were destined, he had hoped, to contribute to the comfort of his maturer years. We have ample reason, however, to congratulate ourselves upon possessing a system of education as comprehensive as it is strict and accurate, and which at once excludes a supposition not less erroneous than it is *degrading*.'

In proof of his statement the author mentions among other things, the '*examinations*' of candidates for the several scholarships, or beneficiary foundations, attached to the colleges; 'in which, with few exceptions, a proficiency in Greek and Latin is considered as *more essential* than skill in mathematics;' and, that of the *public* prizes, which are open to the competition of the whole university, and which amount to nearly £900 sterling, annually, *three-fourths* are 'appropriated to the encouragement of classical literature and English composition;' to which may be added the prizes of particular colleges, about £300 annually, '*two-thirds* of which are devoted to the same purpose.'

We have no intention of discussing in this place the old question of the utility of classical learning, which has so long been settled in Europe by the eminent statesmen and literati of the most distinguished nations; and, we may add, settled in our own country, so far as the prescribed course of instruction at our colleges, according to the letter of their regulations, would seem to indicate. But it is our wish to lay before the public some information of a more distinct and precise character than is generally attainable, in relation to the classical studies pursued at that celebrated English institution, from which our own revered university takes its name. May the result show, that ours is not unworthy of the proud name it bears!

One of the first reflections that has occurred to us, on considering this subject, is, that *classical* studies are pursued, in a greater or less degree, *throughout the college course*, and not, as with us, discontinued during almost the whole of the last two years—a period,

when the mind of the student is best fitted for improvement in regard to subjects of taste, and best able to grapple with the difficulties which he has to encounter in the higher parts of criticism; and, we may add, when he would enjoy and profit most by the study of *entire* works of the ancient authors, instead of hobbling over promiscuous and disjointed fragments of them; which, however necessary in school books, are not sufficient in themselves to excite and keep up the interest that is indispensable to the successful progress of any scholar, who has passed his boyhood. At Cambridge, says Mr. Wainewright,

'Classical lectures take place in every college, throughout that part of each term which requires residence; and uniform attendance is enforced with a proper degree of strictness. Those authors are selected which afford most scope for critical remark, and which at the same time are distinguished by a display of the higher beauties of sentiment and composition. The finest plays of the Greek Tragedians, Plato's Dialogues, the Histories of Herodotus and Thucydides, Aristotle's Poetics, Cicero's Philosophical works, and the two treatises of Tacitus, might be enumerated as *some of the more usual* of the writings of antiquity chosen for this purpose.'

The manner, too, in which these works are studied and explained to the pupils, well derves the attention of all among us, who are concerned in the buisness of instructing youth:

'The advantages on these occasions do not consist merely in calling upon the student to explain the text of the author then in use, but principally in the opportunity afforded of hearing the criticisms of a learned and judicious preceptor, who, in addition to the result of his own researches, can frequently avail himself of manuscript observations not generally accessible. By this means it happens, that scarcely any striking beauties of expression, peculiarities of structure or niceties of prosody, are suffered to escape the attention of his hearers.'

Such is, in a general view, the intellectual discipline prescibed by the wise and practical men, who direct the education of youth at this celebrated university; and the wholesome effect of it has long been visible to attentive observers, in the illustrious men who have had the benefit of such an education. But, as it is by no means satisfactory in cases of this kind to see mere general statements, we shall ask the attention of the public to some details of the University exercises; from which every intelligent reader will be able to form his own opinion of the inestimable value of such a solid and liberal course of education as is there adopted.

For the details, to which we here allude, we are indebted to the

second work at the head of this article, published by Professor Monk, who has so long been known to every scholar by his valuable editions of several Greek works, and by other important services in literature.

The present work of his contains a particular account of the various tasks required at the *examinations* of those students, who were candidates for different university honors; and, from the details furnished by the learned professor, our readers will see, with as much surprise as we have ourselves felt, the very high acquisitions which must be made by the young men who are fortunate enough to have the benefit of such a solid and thorough education. But in order to have a just understanding of the particulars which we shall extract from the work, it is necessary that the reader should first attend to the preliminary remarks in the learned author's *preface*.

'The following publication consists of *extracts from Greek, Latin and English authors*, given as subjects for translation, and of *miscellaneous questions* proposed to the candidates for different classical honors in the university of Cambridge, during the period that I held the office of Regius Professor of Greek. The purport and the occasion of the several exercises will be explained by the notices attached to each.

'The idea of such a publication was suggested by the anxious wish frequently expressed by students, to obtain copies of examinations which had been proposed on previous occasions. By thus allowing them an opportunity of perusing and considering such documents, I hope not only to gratify a reasonable curiosity, but to guide their studies, in the course best calculated to prepare them for a similar ordeal. And, independently of any academical objects, a collection of this nature, consisting of choice passages from the best authors of antiquity, can hardly fail to be in itself both interesting and useful to the classical student. Such considerations have induced the Syndics of the Press to order that this little volume should be printed under the sanction and patronage of our university.

'As this collection may fall into the hands of persons unacquainted with the practice of examinations at Cambridge, it is not superfluous to mention, that the performance of the several exercises was enjoined to the candidates, assembled in a room, *and allowed only pen, ink and paper, within the limited period of two or three hours, or more*, according to the length and difficulty of the task. As there will be observed a considerable diversity in the nature of the subjects proposed for similar prizes in different years, it is necessary to explain, that other departments of each examination belonged to other examiners. The papers here printed were all set by myself. But as at one time or other all the different departments have been allotted to me, this collection will exhibit *a fair specimen of a Cambridge classical examina-*

tion, as it has been conducted since the year 1810 [to 1824] with the addition, however, of a Latin Theme and Latin Verses written upon some proposed subject.'

Keeping in mind the fact here stated, that, in performing the tasks in question, the student is only allowed '*pen, ink, and paper*,' the reader will now be prepared to form a proper estimate of the severe 'ordeal' to which the candidate for university honors is subjected. Most justly is a student entitled to all the honorable distinctions of scholarship, who is able to pass such an ordeal!

The exercises may be arranged under the following classes:

1. Translations from Latin *prose* and *poetry* into English.
2. ———— — Greek *prose* into English.
3. ———— — Greek *poetry* into English and Latin prose and verse.
4. ———— — English into Greek and Latin prose and verse.
5. Exercises of turning different dialects into each other.
6. Miscellaneous Questions; embracing every subject on which a well educated man would consider it necessary to inform himself in the most full and accurate manner from original sources; as

History, general and particular, including a knowlege of the Constitutions, Laws and Politics of ancient States; their Military and Naval power, their manners and customs &c. Biography, Geography, Chronology, Literary History, Criticism.

Composition, in poetry as well as prose; and in the former, the principles of heroic, lyric, and dramatic writing.

Grammar; comprehending the philosophy of language, the particular knowledge of Greek and Latin, and the different dialects of the former.

Rhetoric and Oratory, Moral Philosophy, Intellectual Philosophy, &c. &c.

In our next we shall lay before the reader a few instances of the particular *tasks* under some of these heads, selected from different parts of the work.

INTELLIGENCE.

GYMNASTIC EXERCISES IN LONDON.

Extracts from a letter, lately received from an American residing there.

You may judge a little of our zeal here. I walk nearly three miles—nearly six miles, I should say, every morning, when not prevented by very late hours the night before, to the Gymnastic School, where, as I did this very morning, I am quite sure to find—whether it rain or shine—whether it be cold or warm, a class of five young men, mixed up with a few lads, and not a few middle aged men, prepared for exercise. We continued our school *throughout the whole winter:* in the open air, *of course*, and mostly without cover; and this very evening, as you will see by the papers enclosed, we are to meet publicly for the purpose of establishing a *national gymnasium* here.

Press the subject upon my countrymen, I beseech you. I know of nothing so important as good education—hardly any thing so important as good physical education; for my belief is, that a good physical education is *per se* a good moral education. I wrote a great while ago to Mr. Jefferson on the subject, and offered to secure him a capital German professor,—one who would be recommended by Voelker himself, if he, (Mr. J.) would authorise me. I should remark, here, that, when the season gets a little further advanced, we are to have—a multitude of beginners—literary men—physicians—artists, etc.—and even hard working mechanics, (or *operatives*,) as it is the fashion to call them now—at our new schools. You would hardly believe it; but I know from actual experience that after a few weeks drilling, the pupil, though he be a hard worker, is better able to endure the fatigue of a daily occupation, *after having* been at the Gymnasium, than he would have been before he took to it, by lying two or three hours longer in bed, and *going fresh* to his workshop, as they call it.

It is vain to say that *no* accidents *ever* occur at such a place, or at such a school, as we are speaking of; because, *in spite of the teacher*, young men—grown men—will be doing what they please; but, at the same time, I can say that no *serious accident is ever likely to happen*, though the exercises would appear to a stranger very dangerous—*very;* and *I know*, of my own knowledge, as the lawyers would say, that since Mr. Voelker has been here, nothing of the sort has occurred in his school—except to *myself* and one or two other inconsiderate adventurers;—and we were only put aside for a week or two.

[The gentleman from whose letter the preceding extracts are made has obligingly sent us a couple of pamphlets containing, an account of Prof. Voelker's Gymnasium, and the Prospectus of the London Gymnastic Society, which we hope to find room for in our next.]

MEXICO.

A letter has been recently received at the missionary rooms from Mr Brigham, who has been travelling extensively in South America for the purpose chiefly of ascertaining the moral and religious condition of the country. The letter referred

to contains a brief account of the city of Mexico, by which it appears that the colleges are large, some of them well endowed, and have many students. Their books and their method of instruction are still of the scholastic character.

A Lancasterian school is now in operation; and a Mr. Jones, son in law of Lancaster, has hopes of establishing soon a school for teaching.

PRIZE FUND FOR THE LATIN SCHOOL OF BOSTON.

About three years since, a citizen of Boston, distinguished for his intelligence and liberality, proposed to the School Committee to furnish, by way of experiment, funds to procure two *gold medals*, of the value of fifty dollars each; to be assigned one to the best scholar in the Public Latin School, who should have evinced diligence in his studies, respect to his teachers, and urbanity towards his school-fellows; and the other to the best scholar in the English High School, on like conditions. These medals were to be made under the direction of the School committee and the Principals of the schools, respectively; and to be awarded by them. They were to be presented by the Mayor of the city in Faneuil Hall, on the day of the annual examination of the public schools. These medals were thus presented for two years. But it was found that the circle of their influence was small; that, very soon, competition was confined to two or three in each school. The donor therefore, very judiciously resolved to vary the form of his liberality, and to extend its influence more generally through the school. He accordingly gave at once, a sum towards a permanent fund for prizes; the *interest* of which is annually to be applied to the same uses with the annual subscription, which ceased a year ago—subsequent subscriptions have made the sum amount to seven hundred dollars. Three hundred and fifty dollars were originally given in 1819 towards a permanent fund—This sum together with the recent subscription amounts to $ 1050.

It is hoped that this sum may be increased to about two thousand dollars, which would furnish the means of supplying inducements to diligence, and rewards for solitary study to all the classes of the school.

FRANKLIN INSTITUTE.

Philadelphia, April 20, 1826.

The ninth quarterly meeting of the Franklin Institute, was held at the new Hall —the President in the chair, and S. V. Merrick was appointed Secretary.

The following Report was received from the Board of Managers, adopted, and ordered to be printed. S. V. MERRICK, Secretary.

To the Franklin Institute, of the State of Pensylvania, the board of managers respectfully present the following report of their proceedings during the quarter which has just expired.

The first meeting of the board, after the annual election, was held on the 21st of January, when the board was organised, and Thomas Fletcher was chosen chairman, and John R. Warder, Clerk, for the current year.

The building of the hall has advanced with rapidity, and is expected to be completed in two months. The District Court of the United States have taken possession of their apartments; and the board have held their meetings in one of the rooms, since the beginning of March.

The lectures of the season, have been brought to a close. Three regular courses were given—one on Chemistry, by Mr. Keating, one on Mechanics, by Dr. Jones, and one on Natural History, by Dr. Godman. Besides these, however, many lectures were delivered by different members of the Institute. Before the arrival of Dr. Jones, Dr. Patterson volunteered to supply his place, and gave lectures on the strength and stress of timbers. Mr. P. A. Browne gave lectures on the law of apprentice and master; Dr. Griffith on the diseases incident to me-

chanics and manufacturers; Dr. Darrach on the mechanism of the human frame; and, at the close of the season, Dr. Hare gave at his own room, lectures on electricity.

The audience at the lectures, was always numerous and attentive, and it is believed that this important and prominent department of the Institute, has not failed to prove eminently useful.

Still, it must be universally acknowledged, that to receive the full advantage of a course of lectures, requires a degree of preparatory instruction, and a maturity of age, which many of our auditors do not possess. The great and fundamental object for which we were established, namely, to improve the condition and elevate the character of the operative class of society, by affording them the only effectual means for this purpose, *education*, cannot be accomplished by lectures alone. To attain this object effectually, we must commence at an early age, and it should be our aim to give to the children of our mechanics and manufacturers, who are generally in but moderate circumstances, the advantages of education which have hitherto been confined to the children of the rich, and which have ever constituted the choisest boon that wealth could purchase for them.

Impressed with these views, the Board established, nearly two years ago, a school for mathematics, and one for drawing. But the schools are insulated, and do not constitute, as they ought, parts of a complete system of elementary education; and they have failed, from this cause, and, it is believed, from this cause alone, to fulfil the expectations which were formed at their commencement.

At present the necessity of adopting a more enlarged and perfect plan of education, in the Institute, seems to be universally felt; and accordingly at the meeting of the Board on the 6th of April, it was unanimously resolved, that it was expedient to extend the system of education according to the general outline of a plan reported by the Committee of Instruction; one of the leading features of which, is the establishment of a HIGH SCHOOL DEPARTMENT, in which the system of mutual instruction shall be introduced, and in which the elements of mathematics, drawing, geography, history, the Latin and Greek languages, and, when practicable, the French and Spanish, shall be taught.

[The preceding account is from the Franklin Journal, a valuable monthly periodical issued by the above Institute.]

MR. OWEN'S SCHOOL AT NEW-HARMONY, (INDIANA.)

[A letter lately received from the above place contains the following very interesting information concerning that department of Mr. Owen's arrangements which regards the subject of education.]

There are four hundred children belonging to the society, besides those of strangers from various parts of the Union. The number, when all are organised, will be sufficient to occupy three large buildings. Of these one will be that known among the Harmonians by the name of the steeple house. Its dimensions are sixty feet by forty, height two stories. The upper part will serve for upwards of a hundred boys to sleep, the lower part is divided into workshops; shoemakers, tailors, carpenters, tinmen, stocking weavers, &c., at which the boys all learn to work part of their time as a recreation from more studious pursuits, besides being occasionally employed in the fields and gardens, all of which are cultivated on the most improved principles of agriculture adopted in any part of the world. All these exercises are substituted for the gymnastic of the old schools, and are equally strengthening for the body, and may be made the means of training them to activity and energy so useful in the common occupations of life. The boys already can make their own shoes, clothes, &c., and in a short time may be able to furnish these articles to the whole community. At the same time they learn intellectual arithmetic, geography, mathematics, &c., for trades are used instead of play, and as an amusement when the boys are tired of mental labor. One hundred and fifty girls of all ages, under the

direction of Madame F., are taught the same as the boys, that is drawing, music, arithmetic, mathematics, natural philosophy, and a little chemistry, &c. The older girls are divided into classes. One class takes by turns the cooking, another the washing, and a third keeping the house in order, a fourth the manufacturing of cotton wool; for there are no servants in the society: all work, never working long at the same time, no class occupied above half of a day at the same work; which makes it easy, and not fatiguing. Children have hitherto been unjustly treated; their time made a burthen to them, for want of occupation agreeable to their inclination and faculties; for when properly managed, instead of being a burthen, they might be made a help to all connected with them. Experimental farming schools is one of the plans long had in view, where children would not only be well educated, but turn the help-part of their education into the means of feeding and clothing them.

From the talents of the instructers, and the superiority of the machinery, this place will probably be the first in the union for a useful education.

Extracts from a letter dated New-Harmony, March 31st, 1826.

Among the public buildings are a large hall about 100 feet square; the lower part for lecture and reading rooms, dancing, and music; the upper part for a library, a museum of natural history, cabinets of mineralogy, &c.

Upwards of a hundred packages of books, &c., have just arrived via New Orleans. The works are the most useful and the most splendid that could be procured on natural history, antiquities, architecture, agriculture, &c. There is besides an extensive collection of paintings and prints.

Our teachers are Messrs. Neef, Phiquepal, T. Say, and several other eminent foreigners. We do not hesitate to say that this place offers advantages for education which are not surpassed, if equalled, in any part of this country. The expenses attending the education, board, &c., of one pupil are not over one hundred dollars per annum; and, when we get every thing properly organized, will not exceed half that sum.

[The munificent provisions for education at New-Harmony, are derived, we have been told, from the liberality of an individual who is extensively known for his generous patronage of education in various parts of the United States, and to whom the monitorial school of this city is indebted for a valuable cabinet of minerals.]

NOYES SCHOOL.

[The following account is from Mr. B. M. Tyler, Principal of the above named institution.]

Noyes School is situated in the town of Andover, county of Merrimack, on the main road leading from Concord to Haverhill, N. H nineteen miles from the former place. It was founded by Joseph Noyes, trader, late of this town, who gave twelve thousand dollars for its support. It went into operation September, 1823. A wooden building has been erected for the use of the school, forty by thirty feet, one story high. The interior is divided into three apartments; two school rooms, and a library room. The largest school room will contain fifty four scholars, the smallest twenty-five. The desks for the scholars are all upon one side facing the desk of the instructer.

One instructer is employed. During the first year the number of scholars averaged twenty-five, during the second, thirty, and for the remaining six months forty. There is one house for the accommodation of scholars, within one mile of the school house; the place for the school house being fixed by the will of the donor; but this house is large, and well arranged for boarding, which, with the farm upon which it stands, belongs to the school. The school is under the control of six Directors, who fill their own vacancies. The course of study in this school, is confined exclusively to English branches of education.

The branches of education taught in this school, are Reading, Spelling, Writing, English Grammar, Composition, Elocution, Geography, Arithmetic, Algebra,

Geometry, Trigonometry, Conic Sections, Surveying, (theoretically and practically,) Natural and moral Philosophy, Logic, History, Chemistry, (theoretically) Topography, the use of the Barometer, &c.

The books used in this school, are Scott's Lessons, Murray's Grammar and Exercises, Blair's Rhetoric, Young's Night Thoughts, Walker's Dictionary, Adam's and Walch's Arithmetics, Hutton's Mathematics, Gibson's Surveying, Blair and Enfield's Natural Philosophy, Paley's Moral Philosophy, Morse's Geography, Hedge's Logic, Butlers' History, Cotting's Chemistry.

As far as circumstances would permit, that system of instruction has been adopted, which tends to create a desire for knowledge, and give the pupil the clearest conceptions of the principles contained in the branch to which he attends. It is our design to make thorough rather than ornamental scholars.

When a scholar commences any particular branch, we aim to give him a knowledge of some of the leading principles of that branch. These serve as a guide to his farther progress and also to excite his attention.

But our first object with young scholars, is to excite in them a thirst for knowledge. This is not only one of the most important, but one of the most difficult objects to be attained.

Much time is spent in familiar observations and illustrations.

Those recitations which depend most upon the judgement, are heard in the morning; and the different recitations of the same scholar are kept as far apart as time will allow.

Reason is considered the best system of government. When this is inadequate, extra duties are imposed; and when neither will reclaim the offender, he is suspended for several days. No coporeal punishment is inflicted. We prevent idleness more by a requisition of thorough lessons, than by watching. If a scholar has neglected to get his lesson, he is detained untill he is able to recite it well. Gymnastics have been introduced as far as the situation of the school would admit. Tuition seventy five cents a quarter; and board seven shillings and six pence per week.

READING BOOK FOR INFANTS

It is with uncommon pleasure that we inform our readers of the above publication. It is now in preparation by Mr. Samuel Worcester of Gloucester, Mass. a gentleman eminently qualified for the undertaking.

This proposed book is to contain a series of reading and spelling lessons combined. It will embrace all or most of the valuable improvements suggested by the recent English publications on the instruction of infants. It is copiously illustrated by neat cuts, and is in every way rendered amusing as well as instructive.

From what we have seen of the manuscript, and the designs, we have no hesitation in recommending it as the most ingenious and practical volume which has yet appeared, for the purposes of domestic education or of primary schools.

INCREASING ATTENTION TO THE SUBJECT OF EDUCATION.

We are happy to observe that, among the many newspapers which are published daily or weekly, in various parts of the country, the subject of education is frequently brought forward, and that useful suggestions are often made for improvement in schools, and in domestic instruction. This is a circumstance which must greatly aid the progress of the public mind on this important subject so intimately connected with the welfare of the community.

Of newspapers not published in this city, we would mention the Family Visitor, of Richmond, Virginia; the Christian Monitor, of Harrisburg, Pennsylvania; and the Ontario Repository, Canandaigua, N. Y. as having assigned a portion of their columns to the department of education.

MR. NOAH WEBSTER'S DICTIONARY.

S. Converse, of New Haven, has issued proposals for publishing the above

work by subscription. This dictionary is to be entitled 'An American Dictionary of the English Language.' It is to present the following improvements.

Additional words amounting to 20,000; upwards of 5000 of which are modern scientific terms: *precise and technical* definitions. *additional significations* omitted in most other works, and amounting to between thirty and fifty thousand: new *etymological deductions*, &c.

The work is to appear in two quarto vols., and is to be executed in a very superior style: Subscription price, twenty dollars.

BOSTON HIGH SCHOOL FOR GIRLS.

'The examination of candidates for admission into this school, was commenced on Wednesday, Feb. 22, by the sub-committee and master, and continued through the three following days.

The whole number of candidates examined was 286: of these there were 37 between *eleven* and *twelve* years of age, 69 between *twelve* and *thirteen*, 72 between *thirteen* and *fourteen*, 94 between *fourteen* and *fifteen*, and 14 who have attained the age of *fifteen*, since the second Monday of last December, and who were entitled to an examination as candidates, by a vote of the school committee.

The candidates were examined in reading, English grammar, geography, arithmetic and writing; and in all these branches the examination was critical and thorough. Every individual was questioned in each of these studies, until the place in a scale previously fixed upon, to which her attainments entitled her, was ascertained with as much precision as the nature of the case admitted. In the opinion of the committee, only 135 of the whole number examined, were qualified for admission; and it was thought that the remainder might pass at least another year, profitably in the grammar schools. All these were, therefore, received; although 122 was the greatest number that had been contemplated, and for which arrangements had been made.'

'In many respects, this institution is an experiment; and it cannot be fairly tested, without patient and laborious exertions. A free school for the instruction of females, founded on principles so liberal, is in itself a novelty; but such a novelty argues well for the spirit and improvement of the age, and of the community wherein it is fostered. Although the correct literary education of females is no longer regarded as a subject of comparatively little, or even of secondary importance; this is, perhaps, the first school, established by the public care and supported at the public expense, in which they may receive a systematical course of instruction in the higher departments of literature and science. Much depends, therefore, on the success of this experiment; and it is confidently hoped that the public may not be disappointed in their expectations.'—*Pamphlet on the above School.*

After having visited the school, and received the highest gratification from the general arrangements, and the exercises of particular classes, the editor of this work would improve the opportunity of inviting the attention of the public to this interesting seminary. It does honor equally to the city and the instructer. The numerous details of arrangement—all of which manifest experience and ingenuity on the part of the teacher, and punctuality, order, and intelligence, on the part of the pupils, as well as the perfect success of monitorial instruction, present too many topics for the limits of an article of intelligence.

We shall, we hope, soon receive a full account of the whole method of instruction adopted in this school. We shall then have an opportunity of bestowing on it more of the attention to which it is so justly entitled.

In the meantime, we cannot refrain from expressing our hope that parents, and all who are interested in the improvement of education, will embrace the opportunity of becoming acquainted with the state of instruction in this school. The necessary means will, we hope, be speedily taken for rendering permanent the high advantages which this seminary offers to the young females

of our city. At present, as the number of scholars is limited, and the seats are actually filled, no additional class can be admitted this year; unless arrangements are made expressly for that purpose. The benefits of this excellent institution must, in that case, be restricted to the pupils of the present year. It is to be hoped that vigorous and effective measures will be adopted for constantly widening the sphere of usefulness on which this school has so successfully entered.

EDUCATION IN INDIA.

Charles Lushington, Esq. a gentleman in the civil service of the British East India company, has published, in Calcutta, a highly interesting work under the following title, 'The History, Design, and present state of the Religious, Benevolent and Charitable Institutions, founded by the British in Calcutta and its vicinity.' The volume is neatly executed, and is embellished with lithographic sketches of the buildings erected for colleges, schools, &c.: it is highly creditable to the state of the press in Calcutta.

Much of the work is devoted to accounts of institutions founded for the promotion of education among the native as well as the European population. Considered in this point of view, we have never read any publication which reflects more lustre on British benevolence, or which presents more cheering prospects to the contemplation of minds which are disposed to regard human happiness as dependent to a great extent on education.

If circumstances permit, we will return, at another opportunity, to this important subject, and enter further into datail.

At present we can do no more than give a list of those institutions which are most immediately connected with the objects of this Journal. These are as follows:

The *Government Sanscrit College*, founded for the encouragement of Sanscrit literature, in connection with the improvements of modern science.

Government Mahomedan College.—The object of the founder of this institution, was to produce from it well qualified officers for the courts of justice. The course of study embraces the Arabic language, general literature, law, philosophy, &c.

Calcutta School Book Society, whose object chiefly is the preparing and publishing for cheap or gratuitous distribution, works useful in schools and seminaries of learning, Asiatic as well as English. This society consists of natives as well as of Europeans;—some of the former are princes and chiefs of high rank.

Calcutta School Society, formed for the purpose of assisting and improving existing schools, and of establishing and supporting additional ones, as well as preparing select pupils of distinguished talents by superior instruction for becoming teachers and translators. This society, though independent of the former, maintains a harmonious cooperation with its efforts.

Ladies' Society for native female education, a highly promising institution, but yet in its infancy.

Benevolent institution for the instruction of indigent children.—The schools of this society are on the Lancasterian plan:—aggregate number of children for 1822, five hundred. Upwards of 1000 youth, rescued from vice and ignorance by this institution, are advancing in usefulness to society, and rising to opulence and respectability.

School for native Doctors—embracing the objects of general education, as well as of professional study. The enterprising superintendent has already accomplished a translation of several standard works on anatomy and medicine, and has produced several skilful surgeons.

These are but a part of the institutions which are more or less devoted to the religious and moral improvement of India, by means of education. We have selected some of the most interesting, and have gone as far as our limits will allow, but we cannot close this article of intelligence without acknowledging our obligations to the Assistant Secretary at the Missionary Rooms, through whose kindness we have been enabled to present to our readers this sketch of the efforts of philanthropy, and the progress of education, in a region so interesting in its moral and intellectual condition.

NOTICES.

WORKS IN THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.

The Art of Reading: or Rules for the attainment of a just and correct Enunciation of written language. Mostly selected from Walker's Elements of Elocution, and adapted to the use of schools. Boston, 1826. 12mo. pp. 68.

In the hands of experienced and judicious teachers, this compend will be very useful. It gives the substance of Walker's treatises, stripped of whatever is merely theoretic and discursive.

The compiler has shown much judgement and taste in his selection of matter; and we cannot help regretting that he has not ventured to take greater liberties than he has, with the system from which his extracts are made.

Even by this little abridgement, it would seem that a young scholar must be master of *fifty* rules, before he can be expected to read well. Walker's chief fault is, that he has spun out his system to so tedious an extent.

Nearly twenty of the labored rules of that author might have been condensed into the following sentence, 'Where the sense is unfinished, suspend the voice; and where it is complete, let the voice fall.' See Knowles's abridgement of Walker's system.

In a direction such as the above, there is something rational and intelligible, and perfectly true to nature,—something which the pupil can understand as well as his teacher. But in the number and variety of Walker's rules, confusion and perplexity are unavoidable.

A second edition of this manual will no doubt be soon wanted; and in it, we hope the editor will add to the value of his work by diminishing the number of rules, and multiplying appropriate examples.

Sacred Extracts from the Scriptures of the old and new Testaments, for the more convenient attainment of a knowledge of the inspired writers. For the use of schools. Second edition. Boston. 1815. 18mo. pp. 360.

That the juvenile reader of the Sacred volume needs a guide to aid him in the selection of such parts as are intelligible to him and are best adapted to instruct and improve him, is matter of common observation. All parents and teachers, however, have not equal time and opportunities for assisting their children in this way. The present volume is one therefore which seems calculated for extensive usefulness.

Any commendation of ours would be superfluous after mentioning that the book bears the recommendation of such names as the late President Dwight, Dr. Morse, and Dr. Nott.

The first lines of English Grammar, being a brief abstract of the authors larger work. Designed for young learners. By Goold Brown, Second edition. New-York: 1826. 18mo. pp. 108.

This little book some teachers may think is not called for; since Murray's Abridgment is already in so extensive use; and perhaps it might have been better, to have had Mr. Brown's improvements so arranged as still to leave the ground to the distinguished grammarian to whom we are all indebted for our knowledge of theoretic grammar.

Mr. Brown's efforts however, are we think, so valuable as to be fully entitled to a place in school books on grammar. We have no hesitation in saying, that we consider the First Lines as the most accurate, and every way the most meritorious work on the commonly received plan.

Teachers who have felt and complained of the omissions and other imperfections of Murray will be gratified to find a manual which requires so little oral filling up, and so few explanations for the purpose of reconciling apparent contradictions.

An Abridgement of Lectures on Rhetoric, by Hugh Blair, D.D. greatly improved, by the addition, to each page, of appropriate questions. By Rev. J. L. Blake, A. M. principal of a literary Seminary for young ladies, in Boston, Massachusetts. Fifth edition. Concord, N. H: 1825. 18mo. pp. 326.

Of the many abridgements of Blair this is the most careful and the most judicious we have seen.

One peculiar advantage which it offers to instructers is, that all the questions naturally or properly rising our of the text, are presented in smaller type, at the foot of each page. This arrangement facilitates the business of the teacher, and, at the same time, furnishes sufficient exercise to the mind of the pupil.

The Pronouncing Introduction. Introduction to the English Reader: or, a Selection of Pieces, in Prose and Poetry; calculated to improve the younger classes of learners in reading; and to imbue their minds with the love of virtue. To which are added, rules and observations for assisting children to read with propriety. By Lindley Murary, to which, by the aid of a Key, is scrupulously applied, Mr. Walker's Pronunciation of the Classical Proper names, and of numerous other words, difficult to pronounce, with an Appendix, consisting of words selected from the reading lessons, with definitions. By Israel Alger, Jun. A. M. Boston: 1823. 12mo. pp. 168.

The Pronouncing English Reader. The English Reader: or, Pieces in Prose and Poetry, selected from the best writers. Designed to assist young persons to read with propriety and effect; to improve their language and sentiments; and to inculcate some of the most important principles of piety and virtue. With a few preliminary observations on the principles of good reading. By Lindley Murray, to which, by the aid of a Key, is scrupulously applied, Mr. Walker's Pronunciation of the Classical Proper names, and of numerous other words, difficult to pronounce. By Israel Alger, Jun. A. M. Boston: 1824. 12mo. pp. 264.

These books are valuable contributions to a general and extensive reformation in the style of reading. The department of pronunciation is treated with a rigor and closeness of attention which it has never before received. Every word in which any mistake could be made, is carefully and distinctly marked.

If this edition of Murray's reading books should obtain, as we hope it will, the exclusive currency in our schools in town and country, it would take but a few years to produce a uniform and correct pronunciation throughout the United States.

In this edition of these justly popular works the progress of improvement in the schools of this country has outstripped that in England. School books such as these before us would be of great service there, in rooting out the provincial peculiarities which are sill suffered to remain in too many places.

The execution of these books, we may add, is highly creditable to the publishers.

An Outline of Bible History with notes and observations; adapted to the Minds of Youth, and designed for Sabbath and other Schools; with engravings. By Rev. Charles A. Goodrich. Second edition. Hartford. 1825. 18mo. pp. 108.

This outline may be very serviceable in the instruction of pupils who are very young. The catechetical form is perhaps preferable at such an age. Other

wise, we should have preferred a connected and regular treatise, on which the mind of the scholar might be improved by the exercise of furnishing answers to the questions.

There is, we are happy to say, much useful information in this little manual, and it will be found, we think, a valuable assistant both in school and at home.

BOOKS FOR CHILDREN.

The Child's Arithmetic, or the Elements of Calculation in the spirit of Pestalozzi's method, for the use of Children between the ages of three and seven years. By William B. Fowle, Instructer of the Monitorial School, Boston. Boston, 1826: 24mo. pp. 104.

This invaluable little work will, we hope, soon be in the hands of every intelligent mother who feels an interest in the early improvement of her children. Nothing of the kind has yet appeared in this country, and it is therefore with much satisfaction that we see this department occupied by a teacher of Mr. Fowle's talent and experience.

The book is ingeniously and happily adapted to the class of learners for whose use it is prepared. It is on the plan of No. 3 of the valuable English series of publications, entitled 'Hints to Parents,' and is intended to be used 'as an introduction to the more advanced work of Colburn, which has wrought such a revolution in our schools.'

We have recommended this book to mothers, but it is equally suited to the teachers or monitors of very young classes at school. We hope the day is not distant, when the establishment of infant schools will afford a wider sphere of usefulness to this excellent little volume.

We are sorry that authors and publishers in the department of children's books, should be so indifferent to the opportunity of notice which our pages affords as to leave us unprovided with a single other work of the kind for our present number. We regret this neglect, because we consider children's books as possessing a vast importance, from their incalculable influence on the formation of the young mind and heart. We hope we shall not have to reiterate the complaint we have now made.—We attribute our want of books of this sort to the indifference felt towards this department; and we presume we refer the thing to its true cause; for whilst our stock of children's books is exhausted, we have on hand nearly *fifty* school books, sent us for the purpose of being reviewed, or mentioned in a notice. When adverting to this subject, we feel called on to express our obligations to Messrs. Munroe & Francis, of this city, who have enabled us to enrich our pages with notices of many excellent works of the kind to which we have alluded. It is in fact from these publishers that we have received the greater number of books for children, which have received a notice since the commencement of our work.

TO CORRESPONDENTS.

Received since our last:

A communication from the Female Seminary, Troy, N. Y.

Account of the College of Soreze, near Revel, department of Upper Garonne, France.

School act of the State of Ohio.

Account of the Fellenberg School, Windsor, Conn.—Hopkins Academy, Hadley, Mass.—Classical Seminary for Young Ladies, Ipswich, Mass.

Annual report of the Acting Superintendent of the Common Schools of New York.—Public Schools of the city of New York.—New York Female High School.

An article on the exercise of the voice, treated as a branch of physical education.

Strictures on Murray's Grammar, continued.

Review of President Humphrey's Address.

Remarks on the present system of Education.

AMERICAN

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RULES AND REGULATIONS OF THE PRIMARY SCHOOL COMMITTEE OF THE CITY OF BOSTON.

[The matter contained in the pamphlet bearing the above title, seemed, on reperusal, so important as to require the insertion of the whole. We have deviated, therefore, from our original intention of presenting an abstract, as intimated in our last number, and have given the following rules and regulations in detail.

The interesting age of the children who compose the primary schools; the encouraging success which has attended this important experiment in education; and the vast amount of public good which bids fair to result from it in the present and in future generations—all contribute to give the subject of the following article a value which cannot but be felt by every parent, and, indeed, by every reflecting individual who takes an interest in the common welfare.]

Rules and Regulations of the Primary Schools.

The Committee appointed to provide instruction for children, between the ages of four and seven years, shall be known by the name of the *Primary School Committee;* and shall consist of as many members, in addition to the regular officers, as there are schools belonging to the establishment.

The whole Board.

Rule 1. The officers of the Board shall consist of a Chairman, Secretary, and a Standing Committee; to be chosen annually by ballot, at the quarterly meeting in January.

Rule 2. It shall be the duty of the chairman to preside at all meetings; to call to order as soon as a quorum shall have assembled; cause the journal of the preceding meeting to be read, and

then proceed to business. In his absence the secretary shall call to order, and a chairman *pro tem.* be chosen forthwith by the Board.

Rule. 3. It shall be the duty of the secretary to keep a faithful record of the proceedings of the Board, with the names of the members present at each meeting, which shall be read at any meeting when required. He shall timely notify the members of all meetings of the Board, and all sub-committees of their appointment and duty, by transmitting to their respective first named members, an attested copy of the vote by which they were appointed, including the names of the members of each said sub-committee. He shall transmit copies of all votes and resolutions of the Board, which may require to be communicated, agreeably to the intentions thereof; insert the names of candidates on the notifications to members; notify new members of their election by the Board; and perform such other duties as by custom belong to the office of secretary.

Rule. 4. The Board shall meet on the third Tuesdays of January, April, July, and October; to devise measures for the general interests of the school; and special meetings may be called by the Chairman or standing committee, whenever deemed necessary. Sixteen members present shall form a quorum.

Rule 5. Elections to supply vacancies at this Board, shall always be by ballot, at a regular meeting; and nomination of candidates for the same, shall be made by the respective district committees in which such vacancies may occur, at some previous meeting; or in the interval of any two meetings by notice to the secretary of the Board, who shall insert the name or names thus proposed, in his notifications for the meeting next thereafter ensuing, when election thereof may be duly made.

Standing Committees.

Rule 1. The Standing Committee shall consist of as many members as there are districts; whose duty it shall be, besides their attendance on the meetings of the Board, to meet on the second Tuesdays of January, April, July, and October, (and oftener if called by their chairman and secretary,) to consider of every subject relating to the primary schools; to receive the semi-annual reports of the district committees, and the instructer's returns, and prepare abstracts of them; and report at every quarterly meeting the result of their proceedings,—recommending any improvements necessary to promote the general objects of the Board.

Rule 2. It shall be the duty of the standing committee to visit and examine all the schools, semi-annually, viz.—in the months of March and September; assigning a district to each of their members in regular rotation, or otherwise, when expedient.

District Committees.

Rule 1. The schools of this establishment shall be divided into a convenient number of districts, which shall be regularly numbered; and each District Committee shall consist of as many members as there are schools in the district, who shall annually organise themselves by the choice of a chairman and secretary, and make report thereof to the standing committee without delay.

Rule 2. The schools in each district shall be regularly numbered, and the committee of the district shall assign to each of its members the particular care of a school; but the general supervision of the schools in each district, shall be the charge of the whole committee of the district, to whom shall belong the duty of locating the schools, of electing suitable teachers, of removing those who are incompetent to their duties, or neglect to perform them faithfully, and of controlling all other matters within the district, agreeably to the rules and orders of the Board.

Rule 3. It shall be the duty of the district committees to meet at least once a quarter, and to keep a record of their proceedings relative to the schools under their care.

Rule 4. They shall visit and examine the schools in their districts as often as once a month; and these visits shall be so arranged, as that each member shall examine every school in his district at least once a year; and the report of these monthly examinations shall be made seasonably to the secretaries of their respective districts.

Rule 5. In the first weeks of January and July, each district committee shall prepare from the reports of the monthly examinations, and the returns of the teachers in the district, a tabular report conformable to the blanks furnished by the Board, stating—1. The hour, day and month on which each examination is made; 2. The state of the weather; 3. The number of girls and boys, present and absent, belonging to each class, with an abstract of the whole; 4. The progress of the pupils in their several exercises; 5. Any occurrences or changes of importance in the district, and remarks thereon; 6. Suggestions for the improvement of the general plan. Which reports, together with the instructer's returns, regularly filed and numbered, are punctually to be sent to the standing committee, before the second Tuesdays of January and July.

Rule 6. When notified by the standing committee of an intended visitation, the directing committee of each school, or such other member as may be deputed for this purpose, shall introduce the visiting member of the standing committee to the school under his care, and assist in the examination.

Rule 7. It shall be the duty of the chairman or secretary of each district committee to call on the City Auditor, in behalf of the

instructers, and present their quarterly bills for payment, made on the printed forms provided for the purpose, which must have been previously approved by one or more of the district committee, and receipted by the respective instructers, to whom the amount will be paid over as soon as received by said committee. The quarters for the payment of the instructers' salaries close with the months of February, May, August, and November.

Rule 9. The several district committees shall annually, on the week preceding the May vacation, elect the instructers for their respective schools, and report the same within ten days to the standing committee; and whenever they make any change of instructers, at any other time, shall likewise make report thereof. They shall also give to each instructer elected, a certificate of her appointment, for the time being, not exceeding one year, as follows:

Primary School Establishment.

Boston, 18

The Committee for District No. confiding in the qualifications of have elected her to be an Instructer in School No. in said District, of children between four and seven years of age, for the term of ; provided, she continues to give satisfaction to the Committee.

Attest, } *Chairman of Committee, District No.*

Secretary.

Rule 9. Whenever an instructer reports the absence or habitual tardiness of a scholar to a member of the district committee, it shall be his duty thereupon, to visit the parents or guardians of said scholar, and endeavor to secure regular attendance; unless the circumstances of the case render such visit inexpedient.

Rule 10. Any member of the district committee shall have power to suspend or remove from his school any pupil, when he may deem it necessary, subject to the revocation of the district committee.

Instructers.

Rule 1. The instructers are to teach their pupils agreeably to the course of instruction hereinafter prescribed; they are also to pay strict attention to their morals and cleanliness, and are in general to conform to the directions of their respective district committees.

Rule 2. The instructers shall receive an equal compensation, as fixed by the city council, which shall be in full for tuition, school rent, and other necessary expenses; and they are expressly prohibited from receiving pay from any pupils.

Rule 3. It shall be the duty of each instructer to keep a daily record of the absence, tardiness, or negligence of the scholars,

stating which are the most and least approved, in the book furnished for that purpose; noticing the visitation of any member of the Board, and any other occurrence of importance.

Rule 4. In order early to impress on the minds of our youth, the importance of religious duties, and their entire dependence on their Maker,—the instructers are desired to open their schools in the morning with prayer.

Rule 5. On the last days of June and December, the instructers are to make returns to their district committees, agreeably to the blanks furnished by the Board; in which are to be stated at length, the name of each scholar, the age, and progress of each, and whatever else may be designated by said blanks, paying particular attention to arrange the pupils by classes.

Rule 6. Instructers are not to permit visiters to remain in their schools, unless introduced by the district committee; nor to be themselves employed in needle or other work during school hours, except in pursuance of their school duties.

Rule 7. Whenever by sickness or otherwise an instructer is compelled to leave her school for a season, it shall be her duty to inform the district committee thereof, who may either choose another to supply such temporary vacancy, or approve a substitute selected by herself.

Rule 8. The instructer shall be excused from keeping school on the following days, viz: every Thursday and Saturday afternoon in the year; Fast and Thanksgiving days, and the afternoons preceding them; Election week in May; the first Monday in June; the fourth day of July; Commencement week; and Christmas day; but on no other day except by the express permission of their district committees, or the members having charge of their respective schools.

Schools and Pupils.

Rule 1. The Schools shall contain as nearly an equal number of pupils as is practicable, it being desirable that the average number of daily attendants, should be about fifty to each school.

Rule 2. No Pupil can be admitted into a primary school without a ticket of admission from a member of the district committee, and all pupils are to provide themselves with the necessary books, when required.

Rule 3. Every scholar on arriving at the age of seven years, shall be carefully examined by one or more members of the district committee; and if deemed qualified for removal to a higher school, shall receive a certificate of recommendation in the following form, which is designed as a reward of merit, and will readily gain the bearer admission to an English grammar school.

Certificate of Recommendation.

The Bearer child of , having been instructed at the Primary School in District No. kept by and being years of age, is deemed qualified for admission to an English Grammar School, to which is recommended by

} *Committee of Primary Schools, Dist. No.*

Rule 4. The school hours shall be uniform in all the schools, viz: From the first Monday in April to the first Monday in October, each school shall keep from eight o'clock to eleven o'clock in the morning, and from two o'clock to five o'clock in the afternoon; and from the first Monday in October to the first Monday in April, from nine o'clock to twelve o'clock in the morning, and from two o'clock to half past four o'clock in the afternoon.

Rule 5. The sum of two dollars shall be annually appropriated to each school, for such rewards to encourage the children, as the committee of the district shall judge fit, who shall personally distribute them in their respective schools; and a sum proportioned to the number of schools in each district, shall be placed at the disposal of each district committee for that purpose.

Rule 6. The afternoons of every Tuesday and Friday, are to be assigned to the tuition in needle-work of those female scholars, who come provided with suitable materials—other pupils will pursue their studies as usual.

Course of Instruction.

Classification.—The pupils in each of the schools shall be arranged into four Classes; and the third and fourth classes into two Divisions each, viz:

4th Class....2d Div.—Cards, Alphabet.
1st Div.—Cards continued; Monosyllables and Dissyllables.

3d Class.....2d Div.—Spelling Books; words of two or more syllables.

3d Class.....1st Div.—Spelling Book continued; Spelling and Easy Reading Lessons; the Lord's Prayer; Abbreviations and Numbers commenced.

2d Class.....Spelling Book continued; Spelling, Reading, and all the other lessons in the same to the end; the Commandments; Reading Book.

1st Class.....Spelling Book continued; Spelling, Punctuation, Abbreviations, Numbers; words of similar sound but different in spelling and signification; Reading Book continued; New Testament.

Rule 1. The *second* division of the fourth class shall first stand

up, and after an appropriate address, shall read from the Cards with a distinct and audible tone of voice, the letters of the Alphabet: In like manner, the *first* division of the same class, shall read in words of one and two syllables; and no one of this class shall be advanced to the third or higher class, who cannot read deliberately and correctly in monosyllables and dissyllables.

Rule 2. The third class must be furnished with the Spelling Book adopted by the Board, and the *second* division of it must be taught to read therefrom in words of three, four and five syllables. The *first* division of the same must be continued in their spelling, and advance to the easy reading lessons of the same book, and learn the Lord's Prayer: the learning of Abbreviations and Numbers is to be commenced, and no one is to be promoted to the second class, who cannot spell with ease and propriety words of the above syllables, and read well in the easier lessons of the said Spelling Book.

Rule 3. The second class must proceed in the Spelling Book, through all the spelling, reading and other lessons of the same; and be taught to recite well the Ten Commandments; must be provided with the book of Reading Lessons, and make progress therein; and no one of this class can be advanced to the first, who has not learned and recited, as far as practicable, all the lessons in the Spelling Book, including the stops and marks, and their uses in reading; the use of the common abbreviations; the letters used for numbers and their uses; and the catalogue of words of similar sound, but different in spelling and signification. They must be able also to recite the Ten Commandments and the Lord's Prayer, and to read correctly and readily in the book of Reading Lessons.

Rule 4. The first class shall be continued and perfected in the lessons of the Spelling Book and book of Reading Lessons; be furnished with the New Testament, and taught to read therein fluently and correctly; and no one of the first class shall receive the highest reward—the recommendation of the examining Committee, to be received into an English Grammar School—unless he or she can spell correctly, read deliberately and audibly, has learned the several lessons taught in the second class, and is of good behavior.

ANNUAL REPORT OF THE ACTING SUPERINTENDENT OF COMMON SCHOOLS; MADE TO THE LEGISLATURE OF THE STATE OF NEW-YORK, MARCH 13, 1826.

[The liberal and enterprising spirit which characterises the public measures of New-York, is by no means confined to schemes of

topographical improvement and physical resource. The efforts which that state has made for the wide diffusion of the blessings of education, have raised her to honorable eminence among the members of the national union. The extracts which we have made from the annual Report on Schools will, we presume, be read with much interest. The document from which our present article is taken, reflects, we may add, no ordinary credit on the style in which public business is conducted in the state of New-York—both in regard to the prompt compliance so generally manifested with the requisitions of the acts of legislature,* and the perspicuous and accurate style in which the Report is presented.]

State of New-York, Secretary's office Albany, March 13, 1826.

THE Secretary of State, in obedience to the 'act for the support of common schools,' passed April 12, 1819, respectfully submits the annual report required of him by the act of April 3d, 1821, as superintendent of common schools.

The second section of the act of 1819, makes it the duty of the superintendent of common schools,

'To prepare and report estimates and accounts of expenditures of the school moneys:'

'To digest and prepare, and report to the legislature, plans for the improvement and management of the common school fund, and for the better organisation of common schools:'

'To apportion the moneys to be distributed for the support of common schools:'

And generally, 'to give information to the legislature respecting all matters which may appertain to his office.'

Under the first head, will be embraced the present condition and progress of common schools.

There are 714 towns and wards in the state; of this number, 700 have made returns in conformity with the law.

From these abstracts it will be seen, that 425,350 children have been taught in the common schools during the year 1825; the general average of instruction having been about eight months.

* We would invite the particular attention of our readers to the following fact mentioned in the Report. There are 714 towns and wards in the state; and of these 700 have made returns according to law. *Fourteen* only then it would appear have not complied with the act requiring returns.—We cannot refrain from expressing our hope that, when the returns of our own State are presented to the legislature, the proportion may be equally creditable to Massachusetts. It is with regret we have learned that one town in this state has actually voted a refusal to comply with the requisitions of the late act for the improvement of common schools. We hope this exception will be found a solitary one.

That there are in this state, in the towns which have made reports, 7773 school districts, and of course the like number of common schools organised, and that returns have been received from 7117 of those districts.

That 131 new school districts have been formed during the year 1825, and that the number of districts which have made returns, exceeds that of the preceding year by 241.

That the sum of $ 182,790 09 cents has been paid to the several districts during the year 1825, out of the moneys drawn from the state treasury, from the local school fund, and from the amount raised by tax.

The number of children taught has increased 22,410 in the last year, and it will be perceived that the number of children instructed, exceeds by 29,764, the whole number of children between the ages of five and fifteen. This disparity is readily accounted for, when it is considered, that many attend the schools who are over fifteen and under five years of age.

It is gratifying to observe, as indicative of a more general attention to the means of education, that whilst the whole number of children returned between the ages of five and fifteen has increased only 12,086, the number of children instructed under the common school system, has increased 22,410.

The first distribution of school money was made in 1816. The number of children reported as having been taught in that year, was 140,106—the number between five and fifteen was then stated at 176,449, exceeding the number taught by 36,343. In 1825, the number taught was more than treble that of 1816, and the excess is nearly 30,000 in favor of those instructed.

Revenue.

The amount of the capital of the common school fund is $ 1,319, 886 46 cents. The revenue actually received from this fund in 1825, was $ 81,815 41 cents.

In addition to this fund, the constitution provides, that 'the proceeds of all lands belonging to this state, which shall hereafter be sold or disposed of,' shall belong to the fund for the support of common schools. The construction given to this provision in the constitution, by the commissioners of the land office, is, that it embraces all lands which were unappropriated at the time the constitution was adopted.

In a report of the surveyor-general, (Assembly Journals, 1825, p. 1041,) these lands are computed at 858,090 acres, and valued at 406,418 dollars.

As the additions to the school fund from the sale of lands, must necessarily be gradual, and in no degree commensurate with the

rapid increase of the children to be instructed, it is most respectfully recommended, that the amount to be distributed the coming year, be increased to *one hundred thousand dollars.*

In reference to the requirement in the law, to 'report plans for the better organisation of common schools,' the superintendent thinks it incumbent on him to remark, that as he has but just entered upon the duties of the office, he has not had an opportunity of observing the general operation and effects of the system, and would therefore feel a diffidence in suggesting any alterations of the existing laws, or of varying the regulations made in conformity to those laws. The system has now been in operation about ten years, and the unexampled success which has attended it, is its best commentary. The law of 1819, and the forms and abstracts, were originally drawn and designed by GIDEON HAWLEY, Esq. And it is due to justice to say, that it was this gentleman who gave 'form and comeliness' to the whole system; and up to this time, no material alteration has been found necessary in the system, as arranged and put in operation by Mr. Hawley.

A new apportionment of school money, graduated by the census recently taken, will soon be made out, in conformity to law.

The representatives of a free state, will always feel the importance of fostering primary schools, in a government which is peculiarly based upon the virtue and intelligence of the great body of the people. The common school system embraces in its organisation about 425,000 children, being more than one-fourth of the whole population of the state. There are nearly eight thousand organised school districts, each of which it is necessary should be supplied with an able teacher, in order to give full effect to the system. Some provision which should have a tendency to increase the number of qualified instructers, would do much towards elevating the character, and extending the usefulness of common schools. It might be beneficial to offer facilities for the special education of common school teachers; and as the districts progress in wealth, and the donation of the state is increased, inducements will be furnished for a greater number of persons of competent talents, to engage in the business of teaching, as a profession.

The following papers accompany this report:

Abstract from the returns of common schools in the several towns and counties, for 1825. Summary of this abstract. School report from the city of New-York. A comparative view of the returns of common schools since 1816 inclusive. Common school

fund. Amount of local school fund. Lands belonging to the school fund.* All which is respectfully submitted,

A. C. FLAGG, *Superintendent of Common Schools.*

CAPT. PARTRIDGE'S LECTURE.

[That our ideas of the general value of military science are not so high as those of Capt. Partridge, we freely admit. Many of that gentleman's thoughts, however, on the subject of practical education, are both original and valuable; and that his persevering and successful efforts for the improvement of instruction deserve to be recorded in a work such as ours, there can, we think, be no question.]

THE following paragraphs are extracted from Capt. Partridge's preliminary statements in his 'Lecture on Education.'

I shall define elementary education, in its most perfect state, to be the preparing of a youth in the best possible manner for the correct discharge of the duties of any station in which he may be placed, and consequently, shall consider as most perfect that system which shall be found best calculated to accomplish the object in view. The system of education adopted in the United States, appears to me to be defective in many respects; and—

1st. It is not sufficiently practical, nor properly adapted to the various duties an American citizen may be called upon to discharge. Those of our youth who are destined for a liberal education, as it is called, are usually put, at an early age, to the study of the Latin and Greek languages, combining therewith a very slight attention to their own language, the elements of arithmetic, &c.; and after having devoted several years in this way, they are prepared to become members of a college or university.

Here they spend four years for the purpose of acquiring a knowledge of the higher branches of learning; after which, they receive their diplomas, and are supposed to be prepared to enter on the duties of active life. But, I would ask, is this actually the case? Are they prepared in the best possible manner to discharge correctly, the duties of any station in which fortune or inclination may place them? Have they been instructed in the science of government generally, and more especially in the principles of our excel-

* These documents form a series of tabular details which would occupy too much space in our pages: the extracts given in the above article contain the amounts of the more important columns. For further particulars, we refer such of our readers as have leisure for its perusal to the Report itself, which is well worth their attention.—*Ed.*

lent constitution, and thereby prepared to sit in the legislative councils of the nation? Has their attention been sufficiently directed to those great and important branches of national industry and sources of national wealth—agriculture, commerce, and manufactures? Have they been taught to examine the policy of other nations, and the effect of that policy on the prosperity of their own country? Are they prepared to discharge the duties of civil or military engineers, or to endure fatigue, or to become the defenders of their country's rights, and the avengers of her wrongs, either in the ranks or at the head of her armies? It appears to me not; and if not, then, agreeably to the standard established, their education is so far defective.

2dly. Another defect in the present system, is, the entire neglect, in all our principal seminaries, of physical education, or the due cultivation and improvement of the physical powers of the students.*

The great importance and even absolute necessity of a regular and systematic course of exercise for the preservation of health and confirming and rendering vigorous the constitution, I presume, must be evident to the most superficial observer. It is for want of this, that so many of our most promising youths lose their health by the time they are prepared to enter on the grand theatre of active and useful life, and either prematurely die, or linger out a comparatively useless and miserable existence. That the health of the closest applicant may be preserved, when he is subjected to a regular and systematic course of exercises, I know, from practical experience; and I have no hesitation in asserting, that in nine cases out of ten, it is just as easy for a youth, however hard he may study, to attain the age of manhood, with a firm and vigorous constitution, capable of enduring exposure, hunger and fatigue, as it is to grow up puny and debilitated, incapable of either bodily or mental exertion.

3dly. A third defect in our system is, the amount of idle time allowed the students; that portion of the day during which they are actually engaged in study and recitations, under the eye of their instructers, comprises but a small portion of the whole; during the remainder, those that are disposed to study, will improve at their rooms; while those who are not so disposed, will not only not improve, but will be very likely to engage in practices injurious to their constitutions and destructive to their morals. If this vacant

* The readers of this Journal will have perceived that several institutions are now taking active measures for the removal of this ground of complaint. We are happy in being able to add to the number the university at Cambridge, which has made considerable progress in the establishment of a regular course of gymnastic exercises. We shall soon, we hope, have an opportunity of presenting to our readers an account of the gymnasia of Harvard university, and of the school at Northampton.—*Ed.*

time could be employed in duties and exercises, which, while they amuse and improve the mind, would at the same time invigorate the body and confirm the constitution, it would certainly be a great point gained.

4thly. A fourth defect is, the allowing to students, especially to those of the wealthier class, too much money, thereby inducing habits of dissipation and extravagance, highly injurious to themselves, and also to the seminaries of which they are members. I have no hesitation in asserting, that far the greater portion of the irregularities and disorderly proceedings amongst the students of our seminaries, may be traced to this fatal cause. Collect together at any seminary, a large number of youths, of the ages they generally are at our institutions, furnish them with money, and allow them a portion of idle time ; and it may be viewed as a miracle, if a large portion of them do not become corrupt in morals, and instead of going forth into the world to become ornaments in society, they rather are prepared to become nuisances to the same. There is in this respect, an immense responsibility resting on parents and guardians, as well as on all others having the care and instruction of youth, of which it appears to me they are not sufficiently aware.

5thly. A fifth defect is the requiring all the students to pursue the same course of studies.

All youth have not the same inclinations, nor the same capacities ; one may possess a particular inclination and capacity for the study of the classics, but little or none for the mathematics and other branches of science ; with another it may be the reverse. Now it will be in vain to attempt making a mathematician of the former, or a linguist of the latter. Consequently, all the time that is devoted in this manner, will be lost, or something worse than lost. Every youth, who has any capacity or inclination for the acquirement of knowledge, will have some favorite studies, in which he will be likely to excel. It is certainly then much better that he should be permitted to pursue those, than, that by being forced to attend to others for which he has an aversion, and in which he will never excel, or ever make common proficiency, he should finally acquire a dislike to all study.

6thly. A sixth defect is the prescribing the length of time for completing, as it is termed, a course of education. By these means, the good scholar is placed nearly on a level with the sluggard ; for whatever may be his exertions, he can gain nothing in respect to time, and the latter has, in consequence of this, less stimulus for exertion.*

* That the fifth and sixth objections are not applicable to all our universities and colleges, those of our readers are sufficiently aware who are acquainted

Having thus summarily stated what appear to me the most prominent defects in our present system of elementary education, I will next proceed to point out the remedy for the same. This I shall do by describing the organisation, &c. of an institution, such as I would propose.

1st. The organisation and discipline should be strictly military.

Under a military system, subordination and discipline are much more easily preserved than under any other. Whenever a youth can be impressed with the true principles and feelings of a soldier, he becomes, as a matter of course, subordinate, honorable, and manly.

2dly. Military science and instruction should constitute a part of the course of education.

The constitution of the United States has invested the military defence of the country in the great body of the people. By the wise provisions of this instrument, and of the laws made in pursuance thereof, every American citizen, from eighteen to forty-five years of age, unless specially exempted by law, is liable to be called upon for the discharge of military duty—he is emphatically a citizen soldier, and it appears to me perfectly proper that he should be equally prepared by education to discharge, correctly, his duties in either capacity. If we intend to avoid a standing army, (that bane of a republic, and engine of oppression in the hands of despots,) our militia must be patronised and improved, and military information must be disseminated amongst the great mass of the people ; when deposited with them, it is in safe hands, and will never be exhibited in practice, except in opposition to the enemies of the country.

Independently of any connection with the profession of arms, or of any of the foregoing considerations, I consider a scientific knowledge of the military art, as constituting a very important part of the education of every individual engaged in the pursuit of useful knowledge, and this for many reasons; viz :

1st. It is of great use in the reading of history, both ancient and modern.

A large portion of history is made up of accounts of military operations, descriptions of battles, sieges, &c. How, I would ask, is the reader to understand this part, if he be ignorant of the organisation of armies, of the various systems of military tactics, of the science of fortification, and of the attack and defence of fortified places, both in ancient and modern times ? Without such

with the present regulations of Harvard university, and of several institutions of more recent date.—*Ed.*

knowledge it is evident he derives, comparatively but little information from a large portion of what he reads.

2d. It is of great importance in the writing of history. I presume it will not be denied, that in order to write well on any subject, it must be understood. How, then, can the historian give a correct and intelligible account of a campaign, battle, or siege, who is not only unacquainted with the principles on which military operations are conducted, but is also ignorant of the technical language necessary for communicating his ideas intelligibly on the subject? This is the principal reason why, as it appears to me, the ancient historians were so much superior to the modern. Many of their best historical writers, were military men. Some of them accomplished commanders. The account of military operations by such writers as Xenophon, Thucydides, Polybius and Cesar, are perfectly clear and intelligible, whereas when attempted by the great body of modern historians, the most we can learn is, that a fortress was besieged and taken, or that a battle was fought and a victory won, but are left in entire ignorance of the principles on which the operations were conducted, or of the reasons why the results were as they were.

3d. It is essentially necessary for the legislator.

The military defence of our country is doubtless one of the most important trusts which is vested by the constitution in the general government; and it is a well known fact, that more money is drawn from the people and disbursed in the military, than in any other department of the government. Now as all must be done under the sanction of the law, I would beg leave to inquire, whether it be not of the greatest importance, that those who are to make such laws should be in every respect well prepared to legislate understandingly on the subject?

4th. It is of great use to the traveller.

Suppose a young man, with the best education he can obtain at any of our colleges or universities, were to visit Europe, where the military constitutes one of the first classes of the community, and where the fortifications constitute the most important appendages to nearly all the principal cities, how much does he observe, which he does not understand! If he attempt a description of the cities, he finds himself embarrassed for want of a knowledge of fortification. If he attempt an investigation of the principles and organisation of their institutions, or of their governments, he finds the military so interwoven with them all, that they cannot be thoroughly understood without it. In fine, he will return with far less information, than with the aid of a military education he might have derived.

1st. The course of classical and scientific instruction should be

as extensive and perfect as at our most approved institutions. The students should be earnestly enjoined and required to derive as much of useful information from the most approved authors, as their time and circumstances would permit.

2d. A due portion of time should be devoted to practical geometrical and other scientific operations in the field. The pupils should frequently be taken on pedestrian excursions into the country, be habituated to endure fatigue, to climb mountains, and to determine their altitudes by means of the barometer as well as by trigonometry. Those excursions, while they would enure them to walking, (which I estimate an important part of education,) and render them vigorous and healthy, would also prepare them for becoming men of practical science generally, and would further confer on them a correct *coup d'œil* so essentially necessary for military and civil engineers, for surveyors, for travellers, &c., and which can never be acquired otherwise than by practice.

3d. Another portion of their time should be devoted to practical agricultural pursuits, gardening, &c.

4th. A further portion of time should be devoted to attending familiar explanatory lectures on the various branches of military science, on the principles and practice of agriculture, commerce and manufactures, on political economy, on the constitution of the United States, and those of the individual States, in which should be pointed out particularly the powers and duties of the general government, and the existing relations between that and the state governments, on the science of government generally. In fine, on all those branches of knowledge which are necessary to enable them to discharge, in the best possible manner, the duties they owe to themselves, to their fellow men, and to their country.

5th. To the institution should be attached a range of mechanics' shops, where those who possess an aptitude and inclination might occasionally employ a leisure hour in learning the use of tools and acquiring a knowledge of some useful mechanic art.

The division of time, each day, I would make as follows, viz.

Eight hours to be devoted to study and recitation; eight hours allowed for sleep. Three hours for the regular meals, and such other necessary personal duties as the student may require. Two hours for the military and other exercises, fencing, &c. The remaining three hours to be devoted, in due proportion, to practical agricultural and scientific pursuits and duties, and in attending lectures on the various subjects before mentioned.

Some of the most prominent advantages of the foregoing plan, would, in my opinion, be the following, viz.

1st. The student would, in the time usually devoted to the acquirement of elementary education, (say six years) acquire, at

least as much, and I think I may venture to say more, of book knowledge, than he would under the present system.

2d. In addition to this, he would go into the world an accomplished soldier, a scientific and practical agriculturist, an expert mechanician, an intelligent merchant, a political economist, legislator, and statesman. In fine, he could hardly be placed in any situation, the duties of which he would not be prepared to discharge with honor to himself, and advantage to his fellow citizens and his country.

3d. In addition to the foregoing, he would grow up with habits of industry, economy and morality, and, what is of little less importance, a firm and vigorous constitution; with a head to conceive and an arm to execute—he would emphatically possess a sound mind in a sound body.

THOUGHTS ON THE EDUCATION OF FEMALES. (*Concluded.*)

Domestic education and maternal influence.

Domestic education has great power in the establishment of those habits which ultimately stamp the character for good or evil. Under its jurisdiction, the Protean forms of *selfishness* are best detected and eradicated. It is inseparable from the well-being of woman, that she be *disinterested*. In the height of youth and beauty, she may inhale incense as a goddess, but a time will come for nectar and ambrosia to yield to the food of mortals. Then the essence of her happiness will be found to consist in imparting it. If she seek to intrench herself in solitary indifference, her native dependence comes over her from sources where it is least expected, convincing her that the true excellence of her nature is to *confer*, rather than to *monopolise* felicity. When we recollect that her prescribed sphere mingles with its purest brightness seasons of deep endurance, anxieties which no other heart can participate, and sorrows for which earth has no remedy, we would earnestly incite those who gird her for the warfare of life, to confirm habits of fortitude, self-renunciation, and calm reliance on an Invisible Supporter.

We are not willing to dismiss this subject without indulging a few thoughts on *maternal influence*. Its agency, in the culture of the affections, those springs which put in motion the human machine, has been long conceded. That it might also bear directly upon the developement of intellect, and the growth of the sterner virtues of manhood, is proved by the obligations of the great Bacon to his studious mother, and the acknowledged indebtedness of

Washington, to the decision, to the almost Lacedemonian culture of his maternal guide. The immense force of *first* impressions is on the side of the mother. An engine of uncomputed power is committed to her hand. If she fix her lever judiciously, though she may not like Archimedes aspire to move the earth, she may hope to raise one of the habitants of earth to heaven. Her danger will arise from delay in the commencement of her operations; as well as from doing too little, or too much, after she has engaged in the work. As there is a medium in chemistry between the exhausted receiver, and the compound blow-pipe, so in early education the inertness which undertakes nothing, and the impatience which attempts all things at once, may be equally indiscreet and fatal.

The mental fountain is unsealed to the eye of a mother, ere it has chosen a channel, or breathed a murmur. She may tinge with sweetness or bitterness, the whole stream of future life. Other teachers have to contend with unhappy combinations of ideas, she rules the simple and plastic elements. Of her, we may say, she hath 'entered into the magazines of snow, and seen the treasures of the hail.' In the moral field, she is a privileged laborer. Ere the dews of morning begin to exhale, she is there. She breaks up a soil which the root of error and the thorns of prejudice have not pre-occupied. She plants germs whose fruit is for eternity. While she feels that she is required to educate not merely a virtuous member of society, but a christian, an angel, a servant of the Most High, how does so holy a charge quicken piety, by teaching the heart its own insufficiency!

The soul of her infant is uncovered before her. She knows that the images which she enshrines in that unpolluted sanctuary must rise before her at the bar of doom. Trembling at such tremendous responsibility, she teaches the little being, whose life is her dearest care, of the God who made him; and who can measure the extent of a mother's lessons of piety, unless his hand might remove the veil which divides terrestrial from celestial things?

'When I was a little child, said a good man, my mother used to bid me kneel beside her, and place her hand upon my head, while she prayed. Ere I was old enough to know her worth, she died, and I was left too much to my own guidance. Like others, I was inclined to evil passions, but often felt myself checked, and as it were drawn back, by a soft hand upon my head. When a young man, I travelled in foreign lands, and was exposed to many temptations. But when I would have yielded, that *same hand was upon my head*, and I was saved. I seemed to feel its pressure as in the days of my happy infancy, and sometimes there came with it a voice, in my heart, a voice that must be obeyed—'Oh! do not this wickedness, my son, nor sin against thy God." H.

M. M.–A. JULLIEN'S QUESTIONS ON COMPARATIVE EDUCATION.

A FRIEND has favored us with a French pamphlet under the following title

Esquisse et Vues Préliminaires d'un ouvrage sur L' 'Education Comparée, &c.

The author M. M.–A. Jullien of Paris, holds a distinguished rank among the literary and scientific men of his country. He has devoted a more persevering and systematic attention to the subject of education, than perhaps any other individual of our day. The substance of his pamphlet which we have mentioned above, has appeared in the *Journal D' Education*, a work published under the auspices of the Paris Society for the Improvement of Elementary Instruction.*

The author's object in the pamphlet from which the following extracts are made, is to present a preliminary sketch of a great work, designed to embrace a comparative view of the actual state of education throughout Europe. He commences by expressing a well founded regret that there is a great want of connection, harmony, and proportion, in the grand departments of physical, moral, and intellectual education, as hitherto conducted. He then suggests the advantages likely to arise from a work which might offer the results of a diligent and thorough investigation of the present state of the various establishments for education in Europe—whether elementary and common, secondary and classical, superior and scientific, or special. Of this classification the first branch corresponds to our common schools, the second to academies, and other preparatory seminaries, the third to colleges, the fourth to professional institutions.

The schools of Pestalozzi and Fellenberg are mentioned with commendation, as auspicious to improvement, also the polytechnic school of Paris, and the Lancasterian schools in England.

The attention of the sovereigns of Europe is invited to the formation of a special Commission of Education, to be composed of a few individuals who might chuse corresponding members at a distance, and proceed to the great work of compiling an account of the state of education.

M. Jullien suggests, further, the establishment of a Normal Institute of Education, for the instruction of teachers, under the most favorable circumstances for personal and professional improvement.

He recommends a Bulletin or Journal of Education, arranged

* For an account of this society see intelligence Nos. 1 and 2 of this Journal.

under the same number of heads as might be adopted in the inquiries of the Special Commission already mentioned. These inquiries would be guided by the scheme of questions which forms the principal part of the author's pamphlet.

The following are the leading topics of this department of the work.

Education.—1st. its *subject.*—2d. its *object.*—3d. its *instrument.*

1. The (*subject,*) MAN—as composed of *three* elements: the *body,* —the *heart,* (the affections,)—the *intellect.*

2. (The *object* of education,) *Happiness*—as consisting in *three* things: *health,*—*virtue,*—*instruction.*

3. (The *instrument* of education,) TIME as divided into *infancy, boyhood, youth.*

The series of questions which follow are arranged under the principal heads of

Schools, 1st, Elementary, primary, and common.

2d. Secondary and classical.

3d. Superior and scientific and professional.

Three other series of questions are comprehended under

4. Normal schools.

5. Schools for females.

6. Public schools.

Subdivison of the First Series, Education primary and common. 1. Schools.—2. Teachers.—3. Pupils.—4. Physical and gymnastic education.—5. Moral and religious education.—6. Intellectual instruction.—7. Connection between domestic and private, and public education.—8. Connection between primary and secondary schools.—9. General considerations, and miscellaneous questions.

These nine topics are applied with suitable modifications to secondary and classical schools, and the others which are mentioned.

We return to the questions under the head of

PRIMARY EDUCATION.

Schools.

1. What is the number of elementary or primary schools in the town, district, canton, province, &c.?

2. What is the nature, and what are the names of the schools, as German, French, &c. week-day or Sunday, common to the two sexes or restricted to one; common to all children in the same place, or appropriated to the poor, to the rich, to the middle class?

3. At what date was each school founded? Who were the founders?

4. How are these schools supported—at the expense and under the charge of the central government, of each community, or

of particular societies, or of revenues arising from endowments? How are the funds administered by which they are supported?

5. What are the buildings appropriated to these schools—more or less spacious, commodious, airy, and adapted to their object? (The places where children are brought up during their first years, exercise a powerful influence on their imagination, and the developement of all their faculties.)

6. What are the circles which these schools embrace—a town or only part of a town, a parish, a borough, a village, or one or more hamlets?

7. In what proportion is the number of these schools to the town, circle, district, &c. in which they are established, and to the whole number of children who attend them?

8. Are there distinct schools for children whose parents are of different religious communions; and what is the proportion between the schools of each communion?

9. If there are distinct schools for children of different religious communions, what difference can be remarked between these schools in regard to their origin and foundation, their organisation and their maintenance, material, (of which the buildings are constructed) site, administration, and expenses, number of pupils proportioned to that of the inhabitants professing the same religion, choice of instructers, instruction and progress of the children, internal discipline, and external superintendence.

10. Are the schools gratuitous or not, or what is the monthly or yearly sum paid for each child?

11. What are the terms of admission to the primary schools?

12. Do all the parents send their children to these schools, and are they invited or obliged by legislative measures, or by local regulations to send them?

Primary Instructers.

13. What pains are taken to form good instructers of primary schools?

14. What are the conditions of age, country, religion, morality, capacity, which are required for such employment?

15. How, and by what authorities or corporations, or by what individuals, are the nominations made?

16. What is the number of instructers in the town, circle, district, &c.?

17. In what proportion is the number of these instructers to the whole population of the town, &c.?

18. In what proportion to the total number of pupils, and to the pupils in each school?

19. What are the names of the instructers who distinguish themselves most in their employment? What is their age? How long have they been in employment?

20. Generally, do teachers who are young, or those who are more advanced in age, succeed better?

21. Is it the duty of instructers of primary schools to give at fixed periods an account of the condition of the classes which they superintend—of the conduct and the progress of the children? —At what periods, in what form, under what particular relation, are these accounts demanded, and to whom are they addressed? What means are taken to ascertain their correctness?

22. What are the annual salaries of primary instructers? Are these salaries invariably fixed, or casual, and dependent on the number of children?—What is their maximum—What their minimum? What indemnities or particular advantages are allowed them, independently of their fixed salary? Are they properly provided with lodging, airy, light, and warm? Do they receive a certain portion of grain, of wine, or of other provisions? At what sum may these supplements to salary or indemnities be valued?

23. How, at what periods, and on what funds, are these salaries, principal or subsidiary?

24. Have primary instructers the prospect of a progressive advancement of their salary, or of an advance at a certain stage of their career—whether at the end of a certain number of years of service, or on the ground of their talents or their zeal, or the increase in the number of their pupils? On what foundation rests this augmentation of salary or this promotion? By whom is it proposed, determined, granted? In what does it consist?

25. Have they also the prospect of securing a retreat, after a certain number of years' service? What is the number of years? What is the amount of such pension? By whom is it granted and fixed?

26. In case of accidents or infirmities which may oblige an instructer to retire before the time stipulated for a pension, can he at least obtain an indemnity proportioned to the duration and the benefit of his services?

27. Have primary instructers a sufficient guaranty for the preservation of their places, and are they never exposed to an arbitrary destitution?

28. If faulty conduct or discovered incapacity makes it necessary to displace an instructer, how and by whom, is the arrangement ordered?

29. Do instructers enjoy a degree of consideration sufficient to render their condition honorable?

30. What are their habitual relations with the parents of their pupils with the magistrates of their town, with the ministers of religion?

Pupils.

31. What is the number of the pupils in the primary schools of the district, &c?

32. What is the proportion of the whole number of those pupils to that of the population of the district, &c.

33. What number of pupils is under the charge of the same instructer?

34. At what age are children admitted to the primary schools?

35. Are children of both sexes admitted into the same school, and till what age?

36. Do children undergo, on their entering the primary school, and during their elementary course, examinations suited to produce an estimation of the developement of their faculties, and the progress of their instruction. How do these examinations take place?

37. Is care taken to divide the children of the same school into several classes or sections, and on what basis is this division determined?

38. Are arrangements made which permit the children to aid themselves, and instruct themselves mutually?

39. How much time is employed with an ordinary child, to render him familiar with the elements of reading, writing, and calculation?

40. At what age do children leave the primary schools?

Education Physical and Gymnastic.

41. For how long a time are infants in general nursed in the country—in the city?

42. What kind of nourishment is given to some infants instead of the milk of their mothers, and what effects do these aliments produce on the health of children?

43. Do the wealthier citizens commit their infants to nurses or do the mothers themselves attend to the office of nursing.

44. How are infants nourished after being weaned? Till what age are they hindered from eating meat, and drinking wine?

45. What clothing is used for infants?

46. Is it customary to clothe infants slightly, in all seasons; or are they kept warmly clad?

47. How many hours are children permitted to sleep, till they have attained the age of six or eight years; and how are the hours of repose distributed?

48. Are the beds of children hard, in order to invigorate their bodies, or are they soft; and of what are they ordinarily composed?

49. During sleep, is the head covered or bare, and on what ground is a preference given to either practice?

50. Till what age, in cities, do children usually remain under the care of females, and what are the observations made regarding children who have been put under the charge of men, earlier than comports with common usage?

51. What attention is given to fortifying children by accustoming them early to the open air, and to cold—and by enuring them to fatigue?

52. What are the ordinary sports of children—whether in the family or at school?

53. Are they accustomed to long walks—before or after eating?

54. What success is there in directing and superintending—in an indirect manner without infringing the liberty of children—their exercises and their sports?

55. By what exercises are children rendered agile? Are they taught to use both hands equally?

56. Are they frequently bathed in cold water—lake or river—or in warm baths?

57. Are they taught to swim, and at what age? What precautions are used to prevent accidents?

58. What pains are taken about cleanliness and neatness?

59. What are the rules of hygiene (the preservation and promotion of health) generally followed with children?

60. Are the children generally healthy, strong, and robust?

61. What are the maladies most common among children?

62. Does the small pox still exist, and is it destructive?

63. Is vaccination generally adopted; and for how long a time has the practice existed?

64. How many infants generally are in one year affected with severe illness, and of what kind?

65. What is the proportion of mortality among children under ten years of age?

(Well educated and experienced physicians, and intelligent magistrates, are referred to as proper persons from whom to receive answers to most of the preceding questions.)

The author of the pamphlet from which we have translated the foregoing passages, did not anticipate for his work a wider sphere of usefulness, than it might find in Europe. But there seems to be no good reason why his efforts should not extend their influence to America. The very perusal of his questions, will, we think, do much good everywhere. We shall pursue them farther in a future number.

REVIEWS.

Public Examinations in the English Universities. See No. 6.

(Continued from p. 374.)

I. Translations from Latin prose and poetry into English:

Livii Hist. lib. xxvi.—Quod ubi egressus Scipio in tumulum, etc. *Ciceronis Epist. lib.* vi. 18—Simul accepi a Seleuco tuo litteras, etc. *Persii Satir.* v. 161—

Dave, cito, hoc credas jubeo, finire dolores
Præteritos meditor, etc.

Horat. Satir. ii, 8—
Ut Nasidieni juvit te cena beati, etc. *Taciti Hist.* iii, 71, 72—Vix dum regresso in Capitolium, etc.

II. Greek *Prose*, to be translated into English:

Demosthenes, περὶ τῶν ἐν Χερρονήσῳ—Οὐδεὶ Φίλιππος μᾶλλον ἢ τῇ πολιτείᾳ πολεμεῖ, κ. τ. λ. *Xenoph.* Hellenic. vi, iv, 3—Ἐπεὶ δὲ ἤρξατο ἄγειν ὁ Κλεόμβροτος, κ. τ. λ. *Platon. Timæi*, tom. iii *p.* 36 *D.*—Ἐπεὶ δὲ κατὰ νοῦν τῷ ξυνιστάντι, κ. τ. λ. *Herodot. lib.* iv. 128—Οἱ δὲ Σκυθέων βασιλῆες, κ. τ. λ. *Athenæus, lib.* ix. *p.* 372 *B*—Χειμώνος δὲ ὄψε ποτὲ, κ. τ. λ. *Demosth. de Rhodiorum libertate*—Ἔχρην ὦ ἄνδρες Ἀθηναῖοι, κ. τ. λ. *Thucyd.* ii. 76—Οἱ δὲ Πελοποννήσιοι ἀισθόμενοι, κ. τ. λ. *Aristot. de Rhetor.* ii. 11—Πῶς δ' ἔχοντες ζηλοῦσι, καὶ τὰ ποῖα, κ. τ. λ. *Lysias contra Agoratum, Reiske, tom.* v, 506—Πυνθάνομαι δ' αὐτὸν, κ. τ. λ. *Platon. Phædon*, c, 29—Τί οὖν; τούτων οὕτως ἐχόντων, κ. τ. λ.

III. Greek *Poetry*, to be translated into English and Latin prose and verse:

Aristoph. Acharnenses, v. 509 to 550—

Ἔγωγε μισῶ μὲν Λακεδαιμονίους σφόδρα, κ. τ. λ.

to be translated into English.

Euripid. Bacchæ, v. 370 *to* 430—

Χορὸς. Ὅσια πότνα θεῶν, κ. τ. λ.

to be translated into literal English; also into Latin verse.—Give the metrical names of the verses.

Sophoclis Trachiniæ, v. 469 *to* 529—

Μυρί τι σθένος ἀ Κύπρις ἐκφέρεται, κ. τ. λ.

to be translated into English prose; also into Latin Lyric verse.

Pindar. Olymp. vii, 1 to 31—

Φίαλαν ὡς εἴ τις ἀ—
φνειῶς ἀπὸ χειρὸς ἐλών, κ. τ. λ.

to be translated literally into English; also into Latin Lyric verse.

Apollon. Rhod. Argonaut. iv, 350 to 393—

Ἔνθα δ' ἐπεὶ τὰ ἕκαστα, κ. τ. λ.

to be translated into English. Quote such passages in Virgil, as appear to be imitations of the above: Also passages of Homer and Euripides, to which it bears a resemblance.

Æschyli Agamem. v. 226 to 255—

Ἔπει δ' ἀνάγκας ἔδυ λεπαδνον, κ. τ. λ.

to be translated into English prose and into Latin verse. Quote the passage of Lucretius which appears to be imitated from the above.

Aristoph. Thesmoph. v. 1136 to 1155—

Πάλλαδα τὴν φιλόχορον ἰμοὶ, κ. τ. λ.

to be translated into English verse. Mention the metres of the different verses.

Theocritus. Idyl. xxvi—

Ἴνω, κ' Αὐτονόα, χ' ἁ μαλοπάρηος Ἀγαύα, κ. τ. λ.

to be translated into English prose, and compared with the description of the same scene as given by Euripides.

Homer. Odys. viii, 165 to 185.

Τον δ' ἆρ ὑπόδρα ἰδὼν προσέφη πολυμήτις Ὀδυσσεύς, κ. τ. λ.

to be translated into English verse.

IV. English Poetry and Prose, to be translated into Greek and Latin:

Milton's Paradise Lost, Book IX, 385 to 411—

Thus saying, from her husband's hand her hand
Soft she withdrew, &c.

to be translated into Latin hexameters.

Shakspeare's Henry IV, Part I, 23 lines—

I know you all; and will a while uphold
The unyok'd humour of your idleness, &c.

to be translated in Greek Iambics.

Mitford's History of Greece—

Pericles confirmed his authority principally by that great instrument for the management of a people, his eloquence, &c.

to be translated into Greek.

Milton's Comus v. 213 to 243—

O welcome, pure-ey'd Faith, white-handed Hope,
Thou hovering angel, girt with golden wings, &c.

to be translated into Greek; the blank verse, into Iambics; the song, into Anapæsts.

Hume's Richard III; an extract from—

The historians who favor Richard, &c. to be translated into Greek. Dryden's *grounds of criticism in tragedy*—to be translated into Greek. Sir William Temple's Essay on Poetry; an extract from—' The more true and natural source of poetry' &c. to be translated into Greek.

Gray's Letters—xxxii—to be translated into Latin.

Milton's Sampson Agonistes v. 164 to 193—

Chorus. O Mirror of our fickle state, &c.

to be translated into the language of Greek tragedy; partly into *Anapæstics* and partly *Iambics.*

Gray's Stanzas to Richard Bentley—'

In silent gaze the tuneful choir among, &c.

to be translated into Latin elegiac verse.

Bentley's dissertation on Phalaris—Extract—to be translated into Greek.

Shakspeare. Romeo and Juliet. Act. II. Scene VI.

Friar. So smile the heavens upon this holy act, &c.

to be translated into Greek Tragic Iambics.

R. Porson. Museum Criticism, vol. ii, 113—It may not be improper to say a word of the excellences and defects of Aristophanes &c. to be translated into Greek.

V. Exercises of turning different dialects into each other, &c.

Aristoph. Lysistrata, v. 1297 to 1322—

Χορὸς Λακώνων.
Ταὔγετον αὖτ' ἰφανὸν ἐκλιπῶσα Μῶσα,
μέλε λάκαινα, πρεπτὸν ἀμὶν, κ. τ. λ.

to be turned into Attic Greek. Quote passages of the Tragedians which are imitated in any of the preceding extracts from Arisophanes.

VI. Miscellaneous Questions; of which we select examples from various parts of the work: 1. Grecian History, &c.

' Mention the principal colonies which at different times settled in Greece; with the names of their leaders, the probable dates of the dynasties founded by each.

'Give the circumstances of the dates of the following events, as related by Thucydides. 1. The siege of Platææ. 2. The expedition of Brasidas to Thrace. 3. The defeats of the Athenians at Syracuse.

' Give the dates and the situations of the following battles—Thymbra, Lados, Artemisium, Platææ, Mycale, Tanagra, Arginusæ, Ægospotamos, Cunaxa, Cnidos, Coronea, Leuctra, Granicus, Issus, Arbela, Ipsus. Who were the parties engaged, and the commanders on each side, and what the event of each battle?

'Give some account of the rise and progress of the naval power of the Greeks, mentioning the different states which at different periods were superior at sea. What was the mode of naval warfare in the age of Thucydides?

'What changes took place in the Athenian government during the Peloponnesian war and immediately after it? Mention the causes and the principal actors in each.

'Mention, in chronological order, the principal events of the wars carried on by Philip of Macedon against the different Grecian states.

'What were the distinguishing names and officers of the Athenian Archons? The constitution and authority of the Βουλή and the Ἐκκλησία? What changes were at different times made in the government of the Athenian republic?

'What were the principal authorites in the Spartan government? and how were they balanced? How do the Grecian historians differ in their accounts of this matter?

'Enumerate the different political leaders, who in succession possessed the principal influence at Athens, from Solon to Demosthenes; briefly notice some particular causes of the celebrity of each. Give also the Olympiad and the year in which each died.

'Of what nature was the government of Thebes, and what changes did it experience?

'What was the condition of the Grecian states, when the Romans first carried their arms thither? Give the dates of the events which led to the final conquest of Greece.

'Enumerate the principal events which took place in Greece, between the Peloponnesian and the Phocian wars, with their dates in Olympiads, and the principal actors in each.

'What are the different Greek historians from whom we derive our knowledge of Grecian Affairs, from the earliest times to the death of Alexander? What are the limits of the history of each?

'What period does the history of Herodotus embrace? What are the different wars and revolutions which it relates? Mention some of the principal digressions.

'Mention the most important occurrences which distinguished the reigns of the five first Monarchs of the Persian Empire; giving the date of each.

'By what events did Cyrus become master of the empire of Asia? Give the dates of each of the Persian Monarchs his successors; and mention the leading events which took place in Greece during the reign of each.

'What were in succession the predominant Empires in Asia, from the first Assyrian Empire to that of the Parthians? Mention the events which occasioned the power to change hands; and the founder of each dynasty.

'Give some account of the following places at Athens, and the origin of their names Κεραμεικὸς, Λυκειον, Ακαδημία (quote instances from Greek and Latin poets to prove that its penultima is always long,

except among the later Latin poets.) Πρυτανεῖον, ἡ Ποικίλη, Πνὺξ, μακρὰ τείχη. Where, when, and by whom were the last built?

'Give the names and order of the Attic months, and the mode of reckoning the days in a month. Explain the term ἕνη καὶ νέα.'

2. Roman History, &c. &c.

'What were the principal successes by which the Romans became masters of Italy?

'Mention the most remarkable particulars in the life of Hannibal, with the date of each. What is the character given of him by Roman writers, and to what objections is it liable?

'Enumerate the different civil wars which took place in Italy, from Marius to Augustus; mentioning the duration of each, their objects and their leaders.

'What were the limits of the Roman Empire at the death of Augustus? What accessions did it receive under his successors?

'Give some account of the first settlers in Italy, their names, origin, and language; and mention the original sources of the Latin language.

'Enumerate the principal events which took place in the Roman state from the end of the third Punic war to the death of Julius Cæsar, with their dates.

'Mention the leading events of the civil convulsion between the two parties of Sylla and Marius. What appear to have been their subsequent effects on the Roman government and people?

'What were the different revolutions and convulsions in the Roman state during the period of Cicero's life? What part did Cicero take in each? and in what respects is his conduct censurable?

'What were the numbers of the following officers at different periods of the Republic:—Prætors Ædiles, Tribunes, Quæstors? What was the mode of their election? At what age could each office be held, and what were the particular duties?

'Explain the nature of the Agrarian laws proposed at Rome. At what periods, and under whose auspices were they brought forward and what were the consequences?

'What was the constitution of the Roman legion in the time of Scipio Africanus; its divisions, commanders, and numbers.'

3. Chronology:

'Of what nature are the authorities on which the common system of Grecian Chronology rests? What are the principles on which Sir Isaac Newton founded his Chronology of ancient Grecian History? Mention some instances of the different dates given to the same events, according to the two systems.

'In what epochs do they coincide?'

4. Literary History and Criticism:

'At what period do the poems of Homer appear to have been col-

lected in their present form? What are the few particulars known of them from ancient historians? What conclusion respecting the probable age and country of their author, may be drawn from their language, their historical allusions, and the manners and customs of their characters? Illustrate your opinion by quotations. . . . What reason is there for supposing that the art of writing was practised in his time?

'Mention in chronological order, the ages and birth-places of the most celebrated Greek Lyric Poets. Mention the different species of verse to which they gave their names; giving an instance of each, and of its adoption by their imitator Horace.

'When did prose-writing first originate among the Greeks? What historians preceded Herodotus? Mention the names and age of each and the subjects of which he treated.'

'Mention in Chronological order, some of the principal Comic Poets of Athens; what appear to have been the characteristic merits of each, as far as can be judged from their remaining writings and the opinion of the ancient critics?'

'What are the particular excellences in the style of Plato, mentioned by Longinus?'

'What arguments respecting the antiquity of Homer's poems can be drawn from the versification? Have you grounds to think it probable that the Iliad and Odyssey are the productions of different persons? Are there any parts of either poem which you assign to a later age?'

'State the ages and the countries in which each of the following Greek authors flourished; Hesiod, Stesichorus, Sophron, Theophrastus, Aristotle, Callimachus, Lycophron, Euclid; mentioning what remarkable incidents you recollect in the lives of each.

'What parts of the writings commonly attributed to Euripides are spurious.'

5. The Drama and Dramatic Composition.

'Who was the inventor of the Satyric Drama? What are the characteristics in which it differs from Tragedy and Comedy? Which of the poets particularly excelled in this species of composition? . . .

'What is the distinction between the three ages of Greek Comedy? . . .

'What political characters were introduced upon the stage by Aristophanes? What reason is there to attribute to him any share in the destruction of Socrates?

'Which was the first acted of the remaining plays of Aristophanes? Of what political party does that writer appear to have been? What great changes took place in the government of Athens during the time that he continued to write; and how were his productions affected thereby? . . .

'Translate the following passage from the Ranæ of Aristophanes, v. 936, and exemplify some of the faults of Æschylus and Euripides there alluded to, by instances in their remaining tragedies.

'At what festivals and in what parts of the year were the dramatic pieces represented?'

'Mention distinctly the principal rules and licenses adopted by the Tragedians in their Iambic Trochaic and Anapæstic verses. Quote instances in illustration of each. . . .

'What other kinds of metre are found in *regular* systems in the remaining plays? . . .

'In what particulars does the versification of Homer differ from that of other heroic Poets? Mention some peculiarities of Homeric dialect and Homeric syntax. Give different instances of the Digamma. By what other poets was this consonant used?' . . .

N. B. In this as well as the preceding questions support your assertions by quotations.

'What are the cæsuras in the Iambic, Trochaic and Anapæstic measures of the Tragedians? What rules relating to them were *constantly* and what *generally* observed? In what metres is the συναφεία found?' . . .

6. Rhetoric and Oratory.

'Arrange in chronological order the public orations of Demosthenes; and mention the occasion on which each was delivered.

'What were the several operations and measures of Philip of Macedon against the Grecian States, which called forth the orations of Demosthenes, now extant, against him or in any way relating to him? Enumerate these orations, with their respective dates and particular objects. . . .

'Who were the principal orators contemporary with Demosthenes, and what their respective characters?'

7. Jurisprudence, &c.

'Explain and distinguish the following terms: *νόμος, ψήφισμα, θέσμος —κατηγορία, δίκη, γραφή, εἰσαγγελία, ἔνδειξις—ἐπιψηφίζειν, ἐπιψηφίζεσθαι —θεῖναι νομον, θέσθαι νόμον—λειτουργίαι—εἰσφοραί—τριηραρχίαι—ἀντίδοσις—ἀτιμία.*'

8. Philosophy.

'From what sects does Plato appear to have drawn the tenets of his philosophy? Mention traces of each observable in his writings. Into what sects did his successors divide themselves; and how are they distinguished by Cicero?'

9. Greek language and grammar.

'What relation had the Attic dialect to the Ionic? And what Ionic words are found in the Attic poets?

'What Ionic and Doric forms are found in the Tragic Dialogue?

To what extent was this license carried in the Choruses? Mention some other particulars in which the language of the Tragedians differed from the ordinary language of their Athenian contemporaries.

'Mention a few of the most distinguishing features of the four principal dialects of Greece, observable in the inflexions of the nouns and verbs.

'In what parts of Greece and its dependencies were the Æolic, Ionic, Doric and Attic dialects spoken?

'Explain distinctly the usages of the indicative, subjunctive, and optative moods after ὡς, ὅπως, ἵνα, ὅφρα.

'Give a short account of the *Digamma*, mentioning some of the words of most common occurrence to which it seems to have been affixed by Homer. By what later poets (any of whose remains are still extant) was it used? At what time did each flourish? How late can the use of this consonant be traced in any part of Greece?

'What signification does ἄν give to the different moods of a verb?

'Give some of the distinctions observable between the Doric language of Pindar and that of the Bucolic poets.

'Give some instances of the peculiar signification of middle verbs. How far can the middle be deemed a distinct voice from the passive?

'Explain the error of Grammarians which led them to assign a *second future* to the active and middle voices.

'Translate the following passage into Greek and place the accents on the words: *Thus we find, &c.*'

10. Latin Language.

'Trace the origin of the Latin language from the Æolic or oldest dialect of the Greek; and show the resemblance which exists in particular classes of words in the two languages, giving examples of each.

'Give instances of the changes made by Horace in each of the Lyric metres which he borrowed from the Greeks.

'Who are the Greek poets, besides Homer, from whom Virgil has borrowed? Quote instances of his evident imitations of each.'

Such is the discipline, such are the *tasks* required of the students at this celebrated English university! In the performance of which, too, 'they are allowed only *pen, ink, and paper*, and the limited period of two or three hours or more, according to the length and difficulty of the task.' At the period when we were at our own Cambridge, (we do not pretend to speak of its present improved state,) the very idea of performing such exercises would have petrified both student and instructer.

We might have extended these extracts from the works of Professor Monk much farther, if we had not been apprehensive of wearying the reader. Some persons may, perhaps, think that we have already gone beyond what was necessary. But in a question

of *practical* education, which is our great aim in this Journal, nothing would be more unsatisfactory than a train of *general* remarks, even though clothed in the most attractive language. As, in the common arts of life we must know the different processes and manipulations, so in the most important of all, *the art of education*, we must patiently and carefully examine details even to the minutest particulars; agreeably to the sentiment of that truly practical and admirable writer on education, Quintilian—'ad *minora* illa, sed, quæ si negligas, non sit *majoribus* locus, demittere me non recusabo.'* In the present instance, too, we have flattered ourselves, that many of our young readers, whose education is not yet completed, would take a lively interest in seeing specimens of the exercises and modes of study prescribed to those of their own age in that nation, which speaks the same language with ourselves, and whose literature is ours.

In order, however, to complete our view of the literary discipline of the English universities, it is proper for us to add some further remarks, relative to the manner of conducting the *examinations* of the students, including those which take place annually, or oftener, during the college course, and those which are preparatory to giving degrees. On the former, Mr. Wainewright observes—

'In describing the incentives to the cultivation of general literature, it is perhaps impossible to mention any thing more conducive to this great object, than a regulation which has been for many years adopted by several of our collegiate bodies; nor need I apprehend any inclination to dispute the truth of this assertion, when I name the *college examinations*, which owe their introduction into this place of education to Dr. Powell, formerly master of St. John's College. The students are examined once, and in some instances twice, every year, in the halls of their respective colleges, not only in classical and mathematical learning, but on various points of history, geography, chronology, and antiquities. At the termination, a list is formed of all who have passed this literary trial, in which the names are arranged according to their comparative merit, and rewards are allotted to those individuals who compose the two first classes. Many, to whom the acquisition of fame has no charms, and who are content 'to keep the noiseless tenor of their way,' may elude the severity of the general or *university* examinations, as well as some share of the opprobrium inseparably attached to ignorance and stupidity, by an open avowal of their aversion to the branches of science particularly appropriated to those occasions, and their total indifference to the attainment of distinction. But in these more private examinations, the number of candidates being smaller, and the contest lying between those who daily associate with each other, the abilities of each can-

* Quintil. Instit. procem.

not fail to be properly appreciated, and a spirit of emulation is perhaps more effectually excited.'

But it is chiefly to the severe *examinations for degrees*, that we are desirous at this time of calling the attention of those who are entrusted with the education of youth in our own country. Our author gives the following account of them, as they are conducted in England :

'It is required by the statutes, that every candidate for the first degree in arts should have resided in the university the greater part of nine terms ; which, unless interrupted by casual circumstances, occupies the space of three years. In the month of January of every successive year, all who have completed this required residence, and have kept the appointed exercises in the philosophical schools, are called upon to undergo a *general* and *public* examination, *before they can offer themselves for admission to the degree of Bachelor of Arts.* This examination takes place in the Senate house ; and commencing on the first Monday in Lent term, continues with scarcely any intermission for *five days*. The candidates, it should be observed, are previously divided into classes, each class consisting of those whose proficiency appears to be nearly upon an equality, as far as can be ascertained from their former disputations in the schools.

'There are three orders of distinction, termed *honors*, held out to the ambition of these literary competitors, and in each of these divisions or orders are contained from fourteen to eighteen individuals, though they are not restricted to any precise number, nor can any thing be better regulated for the excitement of emulation and the complete developement of the mental powers. The examiners principally consist of those *Masters of Arts* who have presided at the disputations in the schools, and who at the same time are most distinguished by their experience as preceptors, by their attainments in science, and by their acknowledged impartiality of conduct ; and so scrupulously attentive are they to the duties of their arduous and in many respects, ungrateful office, that it rarely or never happens that any real objection can be discovered to their decisions in estimating the comparative merits of the numerous rivals for pre-eminence.

'Four days are appropriated to questions and problems in natural philosophy and the various branches of mathematical science, commencing so low as with examples in vulgar and decimal fractions, and the elements of Euclid, and at length extending to the most difficult parts of Newton's Principia, Cotes's Harmonia Mensurarum, the analytical works of Dr. Waring, and to the more intricate propositions of the Fluxionary Calculus. The remaining day out of the five, which in point of order is the fourth, is occupied by examinations in moral and political philosophy, natural theology, logic, and metaphysics.

'One very excellent regulation takes place in these examinations, to which I have already adverted, and which I cannot but consider as

in many respects superior to the mode adopted by the sister university; and that is, that every answer is required to be given in plain unperplexed *writing*, even in those cases which admit of oral explanation. This method, while it removes the perpetual obstacle arising from embarrassment, is certainly conducive to a greater degree of accuracy, and at the same time creates no impediment to that readiness of reply, which, though it is in many cases an indication of quickness of mind, is frequently nothing more than the result of undeviating application. To whichever plan the preference be given, it is obvious that he who answers with precision the greatest number of questions in the same portion of time, must be entitled to the honorable distinction of precedence. These written replies are respectively subscribed with the writer's name, and at the close of each day, they are submitted to the careful perusal of the examiners, who keep an accurate register of the labors of the several candidates, accompanied with their appropriate marks of merit. At the conclusion of the fifth day, after a laborious investigation of the accumulated papers, the arbiters complete their final adjudication; on the following day a list of the *honorati* is publicly affixed in the Senate House and the scene terminates with the ceremony of admission to the first degree of Bachelor of arts.

'I should also mention,' says our author in a note, 'that at the commencement of the *last* day of examination, another classification or *bracketing* as it is here termed, is made of the different candidates, as it has now become more easy to fix upon those who are possessed of nearly equal merit. This new arrangement, of course, brings the matter within a narrower compass, and adds fresh vigor to the contest, which is now to decide the final situation of each individual. The point of difference is sometimes so imperceptible that two antagonists are opposed to each other in a separate *bracket*, and it is not till after repeated trials, that any superiority can be discovered in either party.'*

* As nothing relating to the University, from which our own takes its name, can be uninteresting to us, we subjoin here an explanation of the *honors* mentioned in the preceding account of the examinations:

'The appellations given to these three orders of *honors* can only be familiar to those who have been educated at Cambridge—*Wranglers*, *Senior Optimes* and *Junior Optimes*. The envied student who passes the best examination in the Senate House is called the *Senior Wrangler*, a title which, however singular it may appear to strangers, confers a reputation never forgotten in after life. They who follow next in the same division are respectively termed *second*, *third*, *fourth*, &c. *Wrangler*. In a similar manner they who compose the second rank of *honors* are designated by the titles of *first*, *second*, *third*, &c. *Senior Optime*, as are the individuals of the last order, by those of *first*, *second*, *third*, &c. *Junior Optime*. All who, from idleness or inability, are not found to merit a place among the *honorati*, and cherish as their favorite maxim the sentiment in the Ajax of Sophocles, Ἐν τῳ φρονεῖν γὰρ μηδὲν, ἥδιστος βίος, are merely arranged in classes; but even the οἱ πόλλοι, as they are emphatically termed, take precedence according to their proficiency. It is also customary to print the names of those who have acquired honors, in two separate lists, which are afterwards publicly recited and distributed

We had intended to confine our remarks in this article to the university of Cambridge; but having before us an account of the *examinations* at *Oxford* also, we think it will be useful to lay before our readers in one view, all the information we can collect upon a subject of such importance. We therefore add here from a well known work, entitled a 'Reply to the Calumnies of the Edinburgh Review against Oxford,' a particular account of the examinations now adopted at that university:

'Constant admonition, the consciousness of an overseeing eye, the fear of reproof, and the hope of praise, are of service, are even necessary, to overcome the desultory habits of youth, to check its wanderings, to fix its resolutions, and keep it to its purpose. These however are secondary and incidental powers; they serve to refit and keep the machinery in order; but the great spring, which moves and invigorates the whole, is emulation.

'According to the last regulations, the university honors are obtained in the following manner.

'When the student is about two years standing, he is subject to a public examination, which admits him, not to the degree of Bachelor of Arts, but to that intermediate step, which still retains its old title of *Sophista Generalis*. The old exercise was a logical disputation in the public schools on three philosophical questions, which had long dwindled into an insignificant form, before the present exercise was substituted in its room. At this previous examination he is expected to construe accurately some one Greek and one Latin book at least: the most difficult works are not required or encouraged, as there is no competition between the candidates, and an accurate grammatical acquaintance with the structure of the two languages is the point chiefly inquired into. Xenophon, Homer, Herodotus, Sophocles, Euripides, and Demosthenes, among the Greeks, and Virgil, Horace, Sallust, Livy, and Cicero among the Latins, are the most usual books. Besides this, he is examined in some compendium of logic, (generally Aldrich's,) and in Euclid's elements of geometry. It is not thought reputable for a candidate to have omitted either of these branches, but one of them is absolutely required; and in all cases he is made to translate a passage from some English author into Latin. All this is done in public. Eight candidates may be examined in one day, who are all present during the whole time; and there is commonly a numerous attendance of junior students. Indeed there must of necessity be an audience, because every candidate is bound to attend one examination before he is examined himself. The number however, far exceeds what the statute requires, and the school is often quite

in the schools, and in the presence of the Vice-Chancellor, the Proctors and other officers of the University. One of these lists contains the names of the Wranglers and Senior Optimes, and the other, those of the Junior Optimes; and they are respectively distinguished by the titles of the *first* and *second* Tripos.'

full. The examiners are three in number, annually appointed by the university, and sworn to the faithful performance of their duty.

'If the student fails on this occasion, it passes *sub silentio*. He does not receive his certificate at the close of the day; and he may present himself again the next term.

'After having passed this examination, his studies are directed more steadily to the other, where the honor he acquires will depend entirely on his own exertions. He cannot present himself till after the third year is completed, and it is common to defer it till the end of the fourth year. He is then examined first in the rudiments of religion: a passage in the Greek Testament is given him to construe, and he is tried, by questions arising out of it, whether he has a proper view of the Christian scheme, and of the outline of sacred history. He is expected to give some account of the evidences of Christianity, and to show by his answers that he is acquainted with the thirty nine articles and has read attentively some commentary upon them. He is examined again in logic, the object being chiefly to see that he has just and firm conceptions of its leading principles; and, on this occasion, selections from the Organon are often introduced.

'The examination then proceeds to rhetoric and ethics. Upon these subjects the celebrated treatises of Aristotle are chiefly used: and whoever is master of them knows what an exercise of the mind it is to acquire a thorough insight into the argument, and what a serious discipline the student must have undergone who has accomplished this point. The accurate method observed in each treatise renders it not a perplexing, but merely an arduous task: the precision of the language, the close connection of the reasoning, the enlarged philosophical views, and the immense store of principles and maxims which they contain, point them out as the best calculated perhaps of any single works for bringing into play all the energies of the intellect, and for trying, not merely the diligence of the scholar, but the habit of discrimination which he has formed, the general accuracy of his thoughts, and the force and vigor of his mind. If it be at all of use to divide, to distinguish, and to define, to study clear arrangements and order, to discern connection, and to comprehend a plan composed of many widely-separated parts, hardly any works can be named, so well adapted to all these purposes. To these is often added, at the option of the student, the treatise on politics, which is in fact a continuation and completion of the ethical system.

'Besides these treatises of Aristotle, Quintilian as belonging to rhetoric, and the philosophical works of Cicero, especially that De Officiis, as belonging to ethics, are admitted. And the last, as being of easier attainment, are of course the choice of many candidates. But neither of them are strictly indispensable.

'At this examination the student presents what number of classical authors he pleases, provided they be no less than three, and those of the higher order, including both languages. It is not unusual for those who aim at the highest honors to mention Homer, Pindar, one,

two, or three of the Greek tragedians, and Aristophanes. Thucydides is seldom omitted. The other historians, and the orators, are also included, according as the student's line of reading has been. Of Latin authors, besides the poets of the Augustan age, Livy, Tacitus, Cicero, Juvenal, and Lucretius, are the most usual. In the books that he names, he is expected to be well and accurately versed. And although great encouragement is given to an enlarged range, yet a hasty and unscholarlike manner of reading, however extensive it may be, will not obtain reward, and is in fact much discountenanced.

'Besides the questions proposed *viva voce*, many others in the different branches of the examination are put, and answered on paper, while other things are going on. And in this manner also the candidate's knowledge of Latinity is tried.

'The examiners are sworn officers, appointed for two years; they are four in number, and must all be present, unless prevented by sickness or some very urgent cause.

'It will be evident from the statement here given, that the students are prepared to pass this examination, not by solemn public lectures, delivered to a numerous class from a professor's chair, but by private study in their respective colleges.'

Such is the arduous but honorable course of intellectual discipline, which has been pursued by those eminent scholars, philosophers, orators, and statesmen, whose names have shed an unfading lustre upon the land of our fathers. Such too, is the discipline, which will eagerly be submitted to by those high-minded young men in our own universities, who are ambitious that their own country shall not be excelled, either in science or literature, by any nation on the globe. And if, by emulating such illustrious examples, they shall be fired with the same ardor to secure an honorable fame both for their country and themselves, they will not be obliged to cover up a disgraceful ignorance with the poor apology, which the Roman poet was compelled to make for his countrymen, when he felt conscious, that they could not attain to Grecian excellence in the elegant and useful arts and sciences, but must confine themselves to being politicians and warriors only—

> Excudent alii spirantia mollius æra;
> Orabunt causas melius, cœlique meatus
> Describent radio, et surgentia sidera dicent;
> Tu regere imperio populos, Romane, memento.

No: the high minded youth of America will not content themselves with the praise of being practical artisans, or economists or politicians alone; they will eagerly aspire to the proud distinction that ever awaits genius, when under the guidance of a pure taste; which, as it is the highest exercise of that first of our powers, the judgement, upon the most difficult and delicate of all the subjects

of mental contemplation, may be justly considered as the summit of intellectual excellence.

The REFERENCE BIBLE, *containing an accurate copy of the common English Version of the old and new Testaments: with References and a Key Sheet of Questions, Geographical, Historical, Doctrinal, Practical, and Experimental, accompanied with valuable Chronological Harmonies of both Testaments; correct and elegant Maps, and highly useful Tables of scripture Names, scripture Geography, scripture Chronology, scripture References, &c. The whole designed to facilitate the acquisition of scriptural knowledge in Bible Classes, Sunday Schools, Common Schools, and private families. By Hervey Wilbur, A. M.* Boston.

IT is beginning to be known, and ought to be deeply regretted, that *mechanical* rather than *intellectual* habits are formed in many schools intended to educate the young. Children often learn to distinguish the forms and the names of letters, to combine them in syllables, and articulate the words thus formed, without attaching any meaning to sentences, paragraphs, and pages, over which the eye wanders. These habits where they exist are insuperable barriers to a thirst for knowledge, or an expansion of the mind. Their influence is most pernicious when brought to the sacred scriptures. Any attempts to prevent such habits, or to diminish their deleterious influence we shall ever hail with joy. Such appears to have been the primary object of the Reference Bible. The editor has marked his margin, or rather the indentation of the verses, with letters of reference, not to collateral texts of scripture, but to a key sheet of questions, which are few and general, yet well adapted to excite in the youthful mind attention, and promote habits of reflection. We might not have asked some of those questions, and very different answers would undoubtedly be given by different persons, where many of the reference letters are applied, but as they were intended for an index to reflection, they will answer an important purpose; if they attract attention to the truth, whether it be always consonant to the editor's views or not.

That our readers may the better understand the plan, we shall insert a few of the questions, and their application. Before this passage, 'The path of the just is as the shining light which shineth more and more unto the perfect day,' we find a capital *A* inserted. We look at the Key page, which is judiciously made to turn out, that it may be seen in connection with any passage, and we find this question propounded. 'What analogies between sensible and spirit-

ual things may here be traced?' The mind is at once pleased and interested with the employment of tracing this beautiful analogy.

We open the inspired volume where Judah is pleading the cause of Benjamin before Joseph, and find a capital *E* inserted. We consult the key page for the corresponding letter, and find annexed to it this question, 'What particular strain of ELOQUENCE can you point out in this paragraph?' We at once contemplate the classical beauties of the passage. The same effect is produced when we see a capital *S* inserted before passages like the following—'God came from Teman, and the Holy One from mount Paran. His glory covered the heavens, and the earth was full of his praise.' 'Who hath measured the waters in the hollow of his hand. Behold the nations are as a drop of a bucket, and are counted as the small dust of the ballance.' With that *S* we find the questions asked, What sublimity of thought, or of language, is here? What inference follows?

Among the reference letters often recurring we find the small *d*, this has several questions annexed to it. What duty is here enjoined? On whom? Is it taught by precept, example, or inference? How enforced? This letter found before the passage, 'Enter into thy closet, and pray to thy father,' &c., would be answered that secret prayer is here enjoined, that it is obligatory on all; that it is here taught by precept, and enforced by the assurance that God will reward the devotion which flows from love and obedience to him. When *d* is found before the account of Christ's retirement for secret prayer, the same duty is inculcated, but in this instance by example.

The asterisk is sometimes inserted with a letter, and renders it emphatic, for instance, before the golden rule, or the duty of love for enemies, *d** is inserted, denoting the propriety of profound attention.

The number of letters of reference, though small, affords a very good analysis of general scripture truth. They are more easily remembered as they belong to the prominent word in the questions. *A* for analogies, *b* blessing, *c* character, *d* duty, *t* doctrinal truth, *f* facts, *m* miracle, *o* oriental custom, *p* prohibition, *v* vision, &c.

We think it will be obvious to every one, that mental habits of inestimable value must be formed and invigorated by such a process of perusing the sacred scriptures.

The useful tables which accompany the Reference Bible, and which are to be had in a detached form, have been already mentioned in this journal. [See notice in No. 4.]

The cheap edition of the Reference Bible, intended for general circulation, is printed on paper of too inferior a quality for such a

work. But the other editions are on paper and in a style of typography highly creditable to the American press, especially to the mechanism of the power press, where it is executed. We have seen no edition of the scriptures, published in this country, which will not suffer by a comparison with this duodecimo edition.

We sincerely hope this work will have a widely extended and lasting circulation.

Strictures on Murray's Grammar.

(Continued from p. 309.)

The object we have in view, in these essays, is merely to point out the more glaring inconsistencies of Murray's grammar. We are therefore obliged to confine our remarks to the leading points in his second division of grammar, Etymology.

Murray says 'there are in English nine sorts of words, or, as they are commonly called, *parts of speech*.' We shall not dispute about terms; although it would be a fair question to ask, if there are not as many parts of speech as there are words used in speaking; or, indeed, if a letter is not a part of speech, so that, properly speaking, we have twenty-six parts of speech. We do not wish to cavil unnecessarily, nor shall we, with Horne Tooke and others, resolve all the *classes* of words, into one. We are willing to allow several, and shall, in our remarks upon them, endeavor to follow the order our author has adopted.

The Article.

'*An article is a word prefixed to substantives to point them out, and to show how far their signification extends.* Again '*There are but two articles, A and the. A becomes an before a vowel or a silent h.*'

It was not difficult to find words in English resembling the nouns, verbs, adjectives, &c. of the ancient languages; but this was not enough for the first English grammarians, they must find in English as many *sorts of words* as were said to exist elsewhere. Something called an article was found in Greek, and suspected to exist in Latin. *O*, the Greek article is equivalent to *hic* in Latin, and *hic*, in Latin, is *this*, (in some dialects *thic*,) in English. But *this* Murray calls a pronoun. *The*, his article, is a contraction of *this*, once spelled *thae* and afterwards *the*. *The* has been pressed into the service and made an article; while *this* has been denied *the* (or *this* or *that*) *honor;* for two words that are entitled to form a separate class are certainly highly distinguished.

Now we venture to say that in every important case *this*, *that*, *these* and *those* may be substituted for *the* without altering the sense. Mr. Murray says that *the* in the sentence 'Nathan said unto David, thou art *the* man,' is peculiarly emphatical. But thou art *this* or *that* man is equally so.

An article, (*our author says,*) *is a word prefixed to substantives, this* and *that*, *these* and *those*, *one*, *two*, *three*, and every other numeral and ordinal adjective, are prefixed to nouns, in the same way, '*to point them out*,' and even '*to show how far their signification extends*, for they effectually limit the signification of the noun. *The* man, *this* man, *that* man, *forty* men, *seventh* man. The words in Italic are all articles, if Murray's definition be correct. Thus we have disposed of one article.

Not satisfied with *one* (that is *an*) article, our grammarian must have *two*. *An* is a contraction of *one*. *An* is generally contracted into *a* before words beginning with a consonant, and *a* does not become *an*, as Mr. Murray asserts; for, at no very remote period of our literature, *an* was used before all words. One is sometimes spelled *ane*, hence *an*. *A* book is *one* book. The article *un* which the French grammarians have impressed into the class of articles, is also their numeral adjective. How a numeral adjective can be called *indefinite* is hard to conceive. Is one or ten an indefinite number?

The fact is *a*, *an*, and *the*, are as good adjectives as any in our language; and had there not been an article in the Greek Grammar, these words would have been left among the adjectives in ours.

The Substantive.

'*A substantive or noun is the name of any thing that exists, or of which we have any notion.*'

Why the term *substantive* should be preferred to *noun*, or, what is better, *name*, we know not. Substantive carries with it the *notion* of substance; but many nouns are unsubstantial. *Noun* or *name* has no such objection. We think the definition would be less mystical if it merely said, a noun is the name of any thing, or, to save tautology, 'The first class of words are names.' It is as well to say nothing about *existence*, for some nouns imply *non*existence.

Then comes the following distinction.

'*Substantives are either proper or common.*'

'*Proper* nouns are names appropriated to individuals.' All nouns in the singular must be individual names, hence our author adds, '*common* nouns may also be used to signify individuals by the addition of articles or pronouns!' That is, proper nouns are common nouns and common nouns are proper nouns. But this is not the best of it. He says 'Common nouns stand for kinds, containing many

sorts, or for sorts containing many individuals' and then very truly adds, 'when *proper* names have an article (that is, *an adjective*) annexed to them, they are used as *common* names.' We venture to assert that there is no distinction of proper and common nouns, and we bring the above extracts to prove our assertion. We say that every noun in the singular is the name of an individual, and George is no more appropriated to an (that is *one*) individual, than any other singular noun; for there are or may be a thousand Georges. It is true that 'when proper nouns have an article before them they are used as common names,' but it is also true that they are used as common names, *without* what Mr. Murray calls the article. The Cesars were emperors; Twelve Cesars were emperors. It is also true that *proper* names become *common* without either an article or adjective before them. 'Cesars were once emperors, now they are dogs.' Why then this unmeaning distinction, contradicted in the very first page that asserts it?

'*All nouns are of the third person when spoken of, and of the second when spoken to.*' We see no reason for this distinction. There is no need of it on Mr. Murray's plan, for he does not let any noun of the second person change its own termination or that of its verb. There is an appearance of reason in attributing three persons to pronouns, but it is not so with nouns. Grant, however, that nouns have persons, why have they only *two*? Do not some persons represent the person *speaking*, as well as the person *spoken to*? 'I, Mr. Murray puzzle children', is as good an instance of the first person, as 'Be grateful, children of men' is of the second.

Even Mr. Murray seems to have had some rational views, for in his remarks upon passive verbs he has these remarkable words. 'The English tongue is in many respects materially different from the learned languages. It is, therefore, very possible to be mistaken ouselves, and to mislead and perplex others, by an undistinguishing attachment to the principles, and arrangement of Greek and Latin grammarians. Much of the confusion and perplexity, which we meet with in the writings of some English Grammarians, on the subject of verbs, moods and conjugations, (he might have said *cases* also,) has arisen from the misapplication of names. We are apt to think that the old names must always be attached to the identical forms and things to which they were anciently attached. But if we rectify this mistake, and properly adjust the names to the peculiar forms and nature of the things in our own language, we shall be clear and consistent in our ideas;' (and, we add, *not till then.*) It is to be lamented that in the very chapter which contains the above remarks, Mr. Murray undertakes to defend his system of moods, tenses, voices, &c. on the score of their utility, convenience, resemblance to the Latin, beautiful symmetry, &c. for, he con-

cludes, although the learned languages, with respect to voices, moods and tenses, are, *in general*, differently constructed from the English tongue, '*Yet in some respects*, they are so similar to it, as to warrant the principle which I', (Mr. Murray,) 'have adopted.'

We are willing to admit that there is a convenience in allowing to nouns three situations in the sentence, which situations, Mr. Murray, who seems to be one of those whom he describes as 'apt to think that old names must continue to be attached to what they were anciently attached to' calls cases, a term possibly applicable to Latin, but not at all to English nouns. Let us examine his definitions.

The Nominative Case simply expresses the name of a thing, or the subject of the verb. As '*The girls learn.*' If this definition has any meaning separate from the definition of nouns in general, we cannot discover it. The objective case also, 'simply expresses the name of a thing' and is the subject on which a verb acts. 'The girls learn' (what subject?) 'grammar.' The 'surgeons dissect' (what subjects?) 'bodies.' Are the girls and surgeons the *subjects* of the verbs *learn* and *dissect*? The fact is, the nomin ative and objective cases, as he calls them, are the same word, the same 'name of a thing:' sometimes acting, when they are placed before the verb; and sometimes the subject or object of action, when in the sense they follow the verb.

The term *nominative* from the Latin *nomino* to name, has led Mr. Murray to give a definition which implies that the objective case is not the name of a thing. Had he said a word of the doubts which have been raised in regard to the possessive case being the name of a thing, we should have been less inclined to censure him. There has been a spirited contest on this subject, some grammarians asserting that all adjectives are nouns, and others that all nouns are adjectives. It may be well to remark that, whichever existed first, the noun or adjective, it is clear that what we now call nouns may be used as adjectives and verbs also, as 'eye,' 'to eye,' 'eye ball;' and if some words sound oddly when used in either of these three ways, it is not because the genius of our language forbids such use of them, but because such use is uncommon or unnecessary.

The terminations of the numerous cases in Latin and Greek, and of the possessive in English were undoubtedly significant of something. It is generally supposed that the *is*, or *es* of our possessive was equivalent to *add* or *join*, and therefore 'my father's house' is the same as 'my father add house.' The omission of the *e* or *i* before *s*, and the substitution of the apostrophe, are the work of more modern times, and were no doubt intended to distinguish the possessive from the plural of nouns, which were before spelled

alike. But this termination was by no means indispensable nor was it generally affixed to nouns. There can be no doubt that in such expressions as 'bell rope,' 'shoe string,' 'night cap,' and a thousand others, 'bell,' 'shoe,' and 'night,' are substitutes for the possessive case. But we hesitate not to call these words adjectives. Some connect the two words with a hyphen, and call the united words a compound noun, but we conceive this to be as unnecessary as it would be to connect any other adjective with the noun it qualifies.* Thus *rope* is the common name of a thing, *long* rope restricts the meaning of the noun, as do *large*, *old*, *new*, *cart* or *bell* rope. *Bell* and *cart* cease to be properly names, and serve to express the quality of things. Again, Charlotte when alone may be a noun, but when prefixed to the sirname, is merely a distinctive term. The office of an adjective, is merely to enable us to distinguish nouns, that is names, from each other. Mr. Wilson has three daughters. Wilson is the family name of each, but they must be distinguished. The father calls one the *good* daughter, another the *fair* daughter, and the third the *little* daughter, but he has another way of distinguishing them and calls the first Charlotte, the second Harriet, and the third Caroline. Charlotte, Harriet, and Caroline, therefore, are true adjectives when used in this manner, and we shall endeavor to show that every possessive case in our language is no other than an adjective.

If a noun is the name of a thing, we think no one will deny that the English possessive is not a noun. '*Father's house.*' Father's in this sentence is not a name. *Father* to be sure is so, but *father's* implies more than the relation which exists between a parent and his child. In fact its original meaning is secondary, and subordinate to its new office, which is, to distinguish one house from another. We can see no difference between the office performed by the first words in the following sentences, and therefore are compelled to call them all adjectives. 'Noisy carriages;' 'Boston streets,' 'Boston's streets;' 'vernacular tongue,' 'mother tongue,' 'mother's tongue.' As we have hinted before, if the termination 's, have any meaning, *father* and *father's* differ in meaning; and if *father* can be used alone, while *father's*, like any adjective, cannot make sense without a substantive, the use of the two words is different.

* Our contributor is here at variance with the practice of the more correct presses, both of this country and of England. In the following, and similar cases, a hyphen is thought indispensable: a *glass-house*, (a house for the *manufacture* of glass,)—the only possible means of distinction from a *glass house*, (a house *made* of glass.)—*Examples*. 'A man who lives in a *glass house*, should not throw stones at his neighbor's windows.'—'I found James at the *glass-house*.'—*Ed.*

INTELLIGENCE.

PROFESSOR VOELKER'S GYMNASIUM, LONDON.

Extracts from Professor Voelker's prospectus.

For many centuries education has been exclusively directed to the developement of the mental faculties, while the bodily powers have been entirely neglected; and this because the intimate connection between mind and body has not been sufficiently considered, for who does not know, from his own experience, that the mind uniformly participates in the condition of the body;—that it is cheerful, when the body is strong and healthy; and depressed, when the body is languid and unhealthy?

The ancients better understood the value of bodily exercise. What rendered that little troop of Greeks so courageous, and so formidable to the numberless hosts of their enemies, but their continual and regulated gymnastic exercises? And what inspired them with such contempt for the barbarians, but the effeminate education of the latter, that made them unfit to cope with antagonists trained to discharging every duty of a warrior by running, leaping, climbing, wrestling, &c.?—See Xenophon, Paneg. Ages.

In modern times, great promoters of education, as Locke, Rousseau, Campe, Basedow, Pestalozzi, and Fellenberg, have pointed out the want of so important a discipline; but it was reserved for Professor Jahn to be the restorer of this long lost art. After a careful examination of the structure of the human body, he devised a great number of exercises, arranged them in a well-adapted series, and again raised Gymnastics to the rank of an art. In 1810, he established a Gymnasium at Berlin; and the number of his pupils, consisting of boys, youth, and men, soon increased to several thousands. His ardent zeal and indefatigable exertion, and his powerful and persuasive appeals to his pupils, had such an effect, that all vied with each other in endeavoring to render their bodies strong and active. But the rising of the German people, in 1813, suddenly changed the cheerful game into a serious combat. Professor Jahn, and such of his pupils as were capable of bearing arms, (many of these being but fourteen years of age,) joined the volunteers of Lutzow. But few lived to revisit the place, where they had prepared themselves for enduring the hardships of war. Most of these young heroes covered the fields of battle with their corpses from the gates of Berlin to the capital of their enemies. The exercises, however, were resumed at Berlin, and had spread through several other towns, when the campaign of 1815 caused a new, but short interruption.

As a pupil of Jahn's, I also had the honor of serving among the volunteers. The campaign being finished, I returned to my studies; and when I thought myself sufficiently qualified for the duties of a teacher, I commenced them in 1818. At first, I established gymnastic exercises at the Academy of Eisenach, and in the University of Tubingen. In these establishments, as in all others, where similar exercises had been introduced by Professor Jahn or his pupils, a new vigor was imparted to the scholars. Boys, youths, and men, soon found more pleasure in exercises which strengthened the powers of their body, than in pleasures, which render it effeminate and weak. By the consciousness of increased vigor, the mind, too, was powerfully excited, and strove for equal perfection; and each of the pupils had always before his eyes, as the object of his exertions, '*Mens sana in corpore sano.*' Even men indolent by nature were irresistibly carried away by the zeal of their comrades. Weakly and sick persons, too, recovered their health; and these exercises were, perhaps, the only effectual remedy that could have been found for their complaints. The judgement of physicians, in all places

where these exercises were introduced, concurred in their favorable effect upon health; and parents and teachers uniformly testified, that by them their sons and pupils, like all other young men who cultivated them, had become more open and free, and more graceful in their deportment. Fortune led me to the celebrated establishment of M. Von Fellenberg, and this great philosopher, and at the same time practical educator, gave the high authority of his approbation to the gymnastic science. It would not become me to state how I have labored in the academy of that gentleman; but the recommendations with which he and others have favored me, and also the testimonials for which I am indebted to them, sufficiently prove that I do not set too high a value upon the utility of this branch of education. After I had established this system of education there, I accepted an invitation as Professor of the Canton School at Chur, which I received from the government of the Canton. My exertions here had the same result as in other establishments, as is fully shown by the testimonials of the government.

The thanks which I received from so many of my pupils, the testimonials from the directors of those establishments in which I have taught, my own consciousness of not having worked in vain, and the invitations of some friends, emboldened me to come forward in England, also, with Gymnastics, on the plan of Professor Jahn, and animate me with the confidence that here, too, my endeavors will not be fruitless.

I have, therefore, opened a GYMNASIUM in an airy and healthy part of the suburbs of London, the neighborhood of the Regent's Park, No. 1, Union Place, New Road; and I trust, that parents and educators will willingly entrust me with their children and pupils, and that gentlemen will participate in the exercises.

Exercises at Prof. Voelker's Gymnasium, London.

I. Preliminary exercises, which serve principally to strengthen the arms and legs, and to increase their activity, to give the body a graceful carriage, to accustom it to labor, and thus prepare it for the other exercises.

II. Running for a length of time, and with celerity. If the pupil follows the prescribed rules, and is not deterred by a little fatigue in the first six lessons, he will soon be able to run three English miles in from twenty to twenty-five minutes. I have had pupils who could run for two hours incessantly, and without being much out of breath.

III. Leaping in distance and height, with and without a pole. Every pupil will soon convince himself to what degree the strength of the arms, the energy of the muscles of the feet, and good carriage of the body, are increased by leaping, particularly with a pole. Almost every one learns in a short time to leap his own height, and some of my pupils have been able to leap ten or eleven feet high. It is equally easy to learn to leap horizontally over a space three times the length of the body; even four times that length has been attained.

IV. Climbing up masts, ropes, and ladders. Every pupil will soon learn to climb up a mast, rope, or ladder of twenty-four feet high; and after six months' exercise, even of thirty-four or thirty-six feet. The use of this exercise is very great in strengthening the arms.

V. The exercises on the pole and parallel bars, serve in particular to expand the chest, to strengthen the muscles of the breast and small of the back, and to make the latter flexible. In a short time, every pupil will be enabled to perform exercises of which he could not have thought himself capable, provided that he do not deviate from the prescribed course and rules.

VI. Vaulting, which is considered one of the principal exercises for the increase of strength, activity, good carriage of the body, and courage, which employs and improves the powers of almost all parts of the body, and has hitherto always been taught as an art by itself, is brought to some perfection in three months.

VII. Fencing with the broad sword, throwing lances, wrestling, and many other exercises.

All these exercises so differ from one another, that generally those parts of the body which are employed in one, rest in another. Every lesson occupies from one hour and a half to two hours, its length depending on the degree of labor required for the exercises practised in it.

CARL VOELKER, *Professor of Gymnastics.*
No. 1, Union Place, New Road, Regent's Park.

[Professor Voelker's institution has the highest recommendations from the continent, and is equally esteemed by those English and American gentlemen, who have taken lessons at the gymnasium.]

DEAF AND DUMB.

Statement made by Dr. Akerly, in relation to the Deaf and Dumb.

The deaf and dumb are calculated to be in the proportion of one in every 2000 of the population of the United States, which will give over 5000.

The same estimation is made in Europe.

The proportion holds good in New York, Philadelphia, Albany, and Cincinnati in Ohio, where the number of deaf and dumb has been ascertained.

The school for the deaf and dumb in New York, contains fifty-four pupils, of whom, twenty-seven are provided for by a law of the state of New-York, and the remainder are principally charity pupils.

The directors have always been embarrassed in making selections from among the numerous applicants, and they now have on file a list of seventy or more that cannot be received.

There are several schools for the deaf and dumb in the United States, established in the following order:

1. In Hartford, Connecticut.
2. In the city of New York.
3. In the city of Philadelphia, by David G. Seixas.
4. A private school in Philadelphia, by D. G. Seixas, when he was removed from the other. He has recently located his school in New Jersey, and obtained the patronage of the legislature of that state.
5. A school at Danville, in Kentucky.
6. One at Canajoharie, Montgomery county, New York.

The effects of instruction on the deaf and dumb are very observable in brightening the countenance and altering the expression, giving evidence of increasing intelligence: in improving the moral principle which is torpid and almost obliterated; and opening the way to religious instruction and knowledge of the Deity, which is almost void.—*N. Y. Statesman.*

DERBY ACADEMY, HINGHAM, MASS.

[Mr. Daniel Kimball, Preceptor, has favored us with the following account of this institution.]

The Derby Academy, for the education of both sexes, was founded by Mrs. Sarah Derby, of this town, and was first incorporated by the name of 'the Derby School,' Nov. 11, 1784. The name of school was changed, by an act of the legislature, June 17, 1797, to that of Academy. The institution went into operation immediately after the death of its founder, in the year 1789. Mrs. Derby erected the first house, and superintended the building in person.

The Academy is situated on the public road through Hingham to Plymouth, in the centre of the north part of the town. The situation is not sufficiently retired, and the play ground is much too limited.

The building is of wood, 50 feet by 30, and three stories high. The first story, consists of the Trustees' room, a room for a private school, and two large wood rooms. The second story contains the two school rooms, each twenty-five feet

square and ten in height, with a very thick partition between them. They have convenient back entries for hanging clothes, &c. The third story consists of a spacious hall.

The number of instructers is three; the preceptor, preceptress, and her assistant. The preceptor has no agency in the female department.

The present number of male scholars is thirty-eight, and the seats are full. The number of females in winter is about forty, in summer, forty to fifty-five, and seats for sixty. Females may enter the institution and stay at pleasure: males not intended for college, at twelve years of age; if for college, younger at discretion. The studies specified by Mrs. Derby, are 'for males, the Latin, Greek, English, and French languages, and the sciences of Mathematics and Geography; and for females, writing, and the English and French languages, Arithmetic, and the art of needle work in general.' To these may be added reading, orthography, history, rhetoric, philosophy, astronomy, and composition. *Books.*—Murray, Enfield, Evening Entertainments, Friend of Youth, Blair, Wilkins, Adams, and Tytler; Walsh, Adams, Colburn, Bowditch, Flint, Worcester, Lacroix, and Euler; Adams' Latin Grammar, Liber Primus, Viri Romæ, Cæsar, Selectæ e Profanis, Ovid, Cicero, Sallust, Virgil, Livy, Horace; Valpy's Greek Grammar, Delectus, Greek Evangelists, Minora, Testament, and Greek Reader. A morning exercise in Geography, Grammar, writing Latin, &c., prepared at home. The exercises are so arranged as to follow in regular gradation, and to fill the whole time. In the female department, they study in the morning, and work in the afternoon. In preparing lessons in geography, the use of maps is made indispensable. I doubt very much the utility of the long list of questions subjoined to so many of our school books. In arithmetic, the questions which I ask, are not by what *rule* did you do this, &c.; but *why* did you do it so? The direction given is, endeavor to understand the *nature* of the question, the *principle* to be applied, and the *reason* for the performance. And in all that is studied, the importance of understanding the author, rather than merely repeating his words, is constantly kept in view. A few principles understood are far more valuable than volumes on the surface of the memory. If this mode of instruction is not always satisfactory to parents, it is certainly highly useful to pupils.

In the languages I have four classes. In their recitations, I sometimes apply the monitorial system. I think very highly of this method, though we are not without our prejudices against it here. I have had scholars who were so faithful in their studies as to need attention only to the most difficult passages of Greek or Latin, and have been permitted to save that time for study which is usually spent in writing.

About two fifths of the male scholars are not classed, except in reading. These are such as enter the institution for the purpose of attending almost exclusively to one object of study, in arithmetic, navigation, or surveying, for example.—The scholars are very injudiciously admitted at any time in the term, and for as short a period as three months. This has a very unfavorable operation in regard to forming them into classes.

There has been very little use of corporal punishment in the institution, since my acquaintance with it, which is more than fifteen years. I am perfectly convinced of its inutility and injurious influence. Detention of those who are idle and careless, and attention to them in the intervals of study, I have sometimes practised with very good effect.

The institution is supported, principally, by funds furnished by Mrs. Derby. The salary of the Preceptor is from 600 to 700 dollars, that of Preceptress 300, of assistant 150.

A sermon is preached annually for the benefit of the scholars. This, which ought *unquestionably* to be preached alternately in the meeting houses of the first and third parishes, has, for seventeen or eighteen years, been exclusively in the house of the third parish. The preacher on this occasion receives from the funds of the institution twenty dollars, agreeably to Mrs. Derby's will.

ONTARIO FEMALE SEMINARY, CANANDAIGUA, N. Y.

To persons not acquainted with this institution, it may be interesting to state, that it was incorporated by the legislature about a year since, with a capital of 10,000 dollars. Six tenths of the stock were taken with a promptitude that manifested the most lively interest in the object; and measures were immediately entered upon to form such an establishment as should not disappoint the fair expectations of the public-spirited stock holders, who are determined to render it useful to the community, and in all respects worthy of liberal support.

The edifice is situated in a central and pleasant part of the village of Canandaigua—is a neat and capacious building, of three stories, including the basement, seventy-five by fifty feet, and arranged to accommodate at least one hundred young ladies with boarding, school and lodging rooms, besides the family of the principal. The experience, high character and attainments of Mr. and Mrs. Whittlesey, (of Hartford, Conn.) whom the Trustees have been so fortunate as to place at the head of this institution, cannot fail to render it highly respectable and useful.

The inhabitants of this western region, like those of all new countries, have long been dependent upon the older settlements, for the instruction of their daughters in the higer branches of education; and as the country has now become populous and rich, and the number of those who desire such instruction greatly increased, it is cause of congratulation that a school of the first order, where those branches, as well as the elementary studies, will be taught, possessing all the advantages of the best female schools, and of which parents in this part of the state can avail themselves, without incurring the great expense and inconvenience of sending their daughters several hundred miles from home.

Ontario Repository.

PRACTICAL INSTITUTION AND SCHOOL FOR INSTRUCTERS, MASS.

Extracts from Gov. Lincoln's speech at the opening of the Legislature, May, 1826.

'The short period which has elapsed since the close of the unusually laborious session of the last legislature, has furnished few new subjects of public interest, for executive communication, and the invariable custom of this Government, sanctioned by considerations of general convenience, dispenses with the devotion of much time to the concerns of ordinary legislation, at the present season of the year. The government being fully organised, the wishes and interests of our constituents, will probably be best satisfied by a preparatory disposition of measures for more leisure attention at the winter session, and will leave you at liberty to consult your personal accommodation, in conforming to the usual practice, by an early adjournment. I have pleasure in informing you, that I know of no business, which will particularly interfere with such an arrangement, in the exercise of your discretion.

Although these suggestions are respectfully made from a view to the general condition of the Commonwealth, in the common course of the administration of its affairs, yet they will not, I trust, be regarded, as the manifestation of any indifference, or of change of opinion, in reference to the advancement of those high objects of public improvement, which have heretofore been presented for legislative consideration. Indeed, further inquiry and reflection, with extended means of information, have but strengthened the opinion, that the important interests of the people can only be preserved, and the honor and prosperity of the State promoted, by a system of governmental enterprise, and liberality, in accordance with the spirit of the age, and commensurate with the opportunities which the bounty of nature and human genius offer to their indulgence. While all around is in a state of advancement, can Massachusetts alone, remain stationary, without prejudice? Are stupendous works of public improvement to be elsewhere constructed, opening new lands to settlement, new markets to population, rewarding the labours of industry, pouring riches into the treasury of States, and creating lasting resources for the support of civil government and for the en-

courragement of the noblest institutions of learning and the arts, and this ancient Commonwealth, in indifference and inertness, suffer nothing from the comparison? Not so was the forecast of our wise and clearsighted ancestors, even in the earliest periods of their colonial and provincial history. Whatever tended to distinguish their condition above that of others, to improve the prospects of the future, to secure to the generations of their posterity a great and lasting benefit, was anxiously and perseveringly pursued,—and for most of the peculiar blessings of which we are now in the enjoyment, we are indebted to their enlightened views of the public good, and their disinterested devotion to public objects. Unheeding all personal gratifications, they looked forward to the greatness of the people, of whom they were to become the progenitors.—In self-denial and suffering, and of their pittance of worldly substance, they laid deep the foundation of national strength and glory. To the churches and the schools, and to the permanent improvement of the condition of society, they applied the utmost of their limited means. With them every thing was for the common weal, for the hope of the future, for a better and brighter condition to those who should come after them. If their example be not a reproach to the indulgence and supineness of the present day, still, upon what shall we rest for proof of its worthiest imitation? If they planted the free schools of Massachusetts, shall not we cherish the cause of learning, with our kindest care? If they founded Institutions of civil government, for the promotion of the general welfare, shall we not improve them, to advance the best interests of the age in which we live, and in our day also, add something of value to the inheritance of those who shall succeed to us? These inquiries belong to public men. It is in consistency with the genius of a popular government, that the constituted agents of the people execute the public will, may even, that often, by anticipation, they take the responsibility of its ultimate approval, in measures which are clearly within the delegated authority, and are suggested by the sound dictates of a liberal and enlightened judgement. The intelligence of the people is not so much exercised in the direction of precise acts, as the expression of general principles, and the mode in which these are most efficaciously to be illustrated is usually submitted, with a generous confidence, to the discretion of those whom they voluntarily appoint, to represent and to act for them.

Among the many advantages resulting from a frequent recurrence of elections, is the knowledge, which is thus obtained of public sentiment upon subjects, which have previously engaged official attention. Since the interesting discussions of the last legislature upon the general topics of education, and of a system of measures in relation to the resources and internal improvements of the Commonwealth, an opportunity has been afforded for an expression of the opinions, which are entertained by the great body of the people. Coming as you now recently do, gentlemen, from every part of the state, it cannot be difficult to determine upon measures, which the interests of the community require, and your fellow citizens are prepared to sustain. It becomes my duty, respectfully to invite your deliberations, upon such of them as were postponed for further consideration, and your attention to others, which have peculiar application, to the character of the times, and the existing circumstances of the Commonwealth.

Of the most important of the referred business, was the proposition for the establishment of a seminary of practical arts and sciences. A committee of the House of Representatives having been charged with a revision of this subject, it will probably be addressed to you, under the favorable circumstance of their intelligent expositions. It must be worthy of serious regard, that the means of instruction should keep pace with the increased and increasing population of the state, and are at all times, wisely adapted to the pursuits and requirements of the people. The system of education, as now supported by the provisions of law, has but little changed with all the astonishing changes, which a half century of national independence, of vicissitude from poverty and privation to public and private prosperity, wealth and luxury, have produced. Whatever improvement has been made, is rather in the character of the books used in instruction,

than in the manner of imparting it, or the branches of learning, which are taught. The business of society urgently demands great alterations in these particulars. New channels of business, new interests and objects, and other and different capacities for their proper management, require a conformity in the course of preparatory education. The qualifications of instructers deserve much more of care and attention. To the great honor and happiness of the Commonwealth, this employment has become an extensively desirable and lucrative occupation. It may be safely computed, that the number of male teachers engaged by the towns annually, for the whole or parts of the year, does not fall short of *twenty five hundred* different individuals, to which, if the number of female instructers and those employed in private schools be added, the aggregate would amount to many *thousands*. Knowledge in the art of governing, and a facility in communicating instruction, are attainments in the teacher, of indispensable importance to proficiency by the pupil. These talents are as much to be acquired by education as are the sciences themselves. It will well merit the consideration of the legislature, when discussing the expediency of the institution of the proposed seminary, whether provision for the preparation of a class of men to become the instructers of youth in the public schools, in branches of learning adapted to the present condition and wants of the country, is not among the highest of the inducements to the measure, and should be an object of primary and definite arrangement in its adoption.

[A reference to our past numbers will remind our readers that the subject of establishing a practical seminary for the diffusion of useful knowledge connected with the arts and business of life, was brought before our last legislature, and that the report made by a committee appointed for that subject, recommending the proposed measure, was returned for farther consideration. To every friend of improvement it must be highly gratifying to observe this subject introduced so prominently in the message of Governor Lincoln.

Whatever may be the result of legislative deliberation on the establishment of the above seminary, the public mind seems in a fair way to produce of itself some of the effects which are anticipated from such an institution. The highly favorable impressions of public sentiment toward the system of mutual instruction is effecting an extensive introduction of that method in common schools. An important object of the improved system is the preparing of youth for the business of teaching, by furnishing them with early and daily opportunities of practice, under circumstances peculiarly advantageous for the acquisition of skill, and the attainment of success.

The proposed seminary, however, becomes not the less desirable from the introduction of monitorial teaching. It becomes in fact vastly more so. The schools of mutual instruction will operate as primary and preparatory institutions for young teachers, who will thus be put into a condition for receiving with advantage the course of education which the seminary will furnish.

Nothing surely can be more beneficial to the interests of our state, than the establishment of a seminary which may furnish a constant supply of well educated teachers, prepared to enter on their office with accomplished minds, and enlightened views of the whole subject of education, as well as the best practical qualifications for instruction. Such a seminary cannot fail soon to become so popular as to support itself; but all its actual success must depend on the liberality with which it may be enabled to commence its operations; for a poor and imperfect institution, instead of promoting the object desired, would unavoidably fix and entail a low standard of qualifications on the part of instructers, and consequently a low state of public education.]

GYMNASIUM IN BOSTON.

A meeting of the citizens of Boston was held at the hall of the Exchange Coffee House, on Thursday, the 15th June, to consult on the expediency of establishing a school for gymnastic exercise.

A report was read, giving an account of the measures previously taken by a private committee who had been engaged in promoting this object. Application, it was mentioned, had been successfully made to the city council for a piece of vacant ground which might be improved for the purpose of commencing the experiment, and continuing it for two years. All that remained to be done was to enclose and cover the gymnastic ground, and procure a teacher with the requisite apparatus. From three to five thousand dollars, it was conceived, would be sufficient to defray the expenses attending these arrangements, as after a favorable beginning the school would support itself, by moderate tuition fees, which, while they would suffice for the support of the establishment, would render its benefits accessible to every class of the community. The primary object of the gymnastic school would be to furnish opportunity and means of exercise to the youth of the city. At the same time, it would be open to persons of every age who might be inclined to embrace the opportunity for the regular practice of bodily exercise. If the experiment of a gymnasium is found successful, it is to be hoped that it will constitute a department of public education, under the patronage of the city. The general importance of physical education was very successfully exhibited in the able report of the secretary.

A letter was read from a committee of the students of the university, who had met for the purpose of adopting some method of aiding the efforts of the citizens of Boston, in their attempt to establish a gymnasium. The letter contained very pleasing intelligence regarding the good effects which had been experienced from the gymnasium at Cambridge, and the best wishes of the students for the success of the undertaking in Boston. The committee favored the meeting with their personal attendance; and one of their number furnished much instructive information regarding gymnastic exercise, in answer to inquiries from the chairman of the meeting. The gymnasium at Cambridge was said to have had the most favorable influence on the health, and bodily and mental activity of the students, as well as on the disposal of time during the hours of relaxation. Its moral influence therefore was decidedly favorable.

No addresses of any length were delivered, as the persons who composed the meeting seemed to have assembled with minds perfectly prepared, and very favorably disposed, for the business which came before them. The proceedings were marked by perfect unanimity, and a commendable despatch.

A committee was chosen for the purpose of procuring the necessary means of carrying into effect the primary resolution of the meeting, 'that it is expedient to establish a gymnasium in Boston.'

The thanks of the meeting were presented to the students of the university, for the interest they had manifested in the measures taken by the citizens in an object so intimately connected with the public welfare.

ROUND HILL SCHOOL.

We lay before our readers an account of the studies now pursuing at the Round Hill School under the direction of Messrs. JOSEPH G. COGSWELL and GEORGE BANCROFT, assisted by the following gentlemen:

Charles Beck, Instructer in Latin and Gymnastics,
G. H. Bode, Greek and German,
C. C. Felton, Mathematics,
Donato Gheradi, Latin and Italian,
Francis Grund, Mathematics,
M. N. Hentz, French,
William Hutchens, Writing,
W. D. King, Elocution,
A. X. San Martin, Spanish,
A. G Villeneuve, French.

The whole number of boys at the school is one hundred and twelve. Of these thirty-three pursue the study of Greek in seven classes. The text book used for

the lower classes, is Jacob's Greek Reader; for the higher the Collect. Græca Majora, Homer, or the tragedians. Buttman's Greek Grammar is preferred in all the classes, not less for beginners, than for the more advanced.

There are ninety-five who pursue the study of Latin, in twelve classes. The books regularly used with beginners are Adams' Latin Grammar, Jacobs' Latin Reader, and Cornelius Nepos. For the higher classes works are selected from the wide range of Latin literature as inclination and circumstances may lead.—Livy, Cicero, Virgil, Tacitus, Sallust, are most frequently used.

One hundred and ten attend to French, in thirteen classes. The class books used in commencing the study of the French are Wanostrotht's French Grammar, the French Reader and the French Manual of Mr. Hentz. For the higher classes, works are selected each half-year, from the best French writers in prose and poetry; in the half year chiefly from Moliere, Bossuet, Voltaire and Florian. The attention of the higher classes is principally directed to speaking and writing the language.

Fifty-four learn the Spanish, for which they are arranged in ten classes. The Grammar used is Mr. Sales' Translation of Josse. As yet no satisfactory elementary work has appeared, and the Coleccion Espanola is used for the want of something, better adapted to beginners. The higher classes use Don Quijote, Gil Blas traducido por el P. Ysla, Cartas Moruecas and Comedias de Moratin.

In the two German classes there are twelve. The Thirty Years' War of Schiller is used with each.

A small class in the Italian language has just been formed.

The whole number pursue mathematical studies in thirteen regular classes, of which six are engaged with Arithmetic, and the rest have courses in Algebra, Geometry, Trigonometry, and the Application of Algebra to Geometry.

The English Language is made a subject of study to all. Exercises in Grammar, Reading, Declamation, and Writing, (either translations or Original Compositions,) constitute the course.

For English Grammar and composition the school is divided into two parts; of which the younger part receive lessons in Grammar and writing English in the same classes into which they are distrubuted for Arithmetic; the older part in two large classes have weekly exercises in Grammar and the rules of Composition, and give up themes once a fortnight.

For reading the School is divided into sixteen classes; of which the six lowest receive an hour's instruction three times in the week each; the more advanced pupils read but twice or once in the week.

For Declamation there are four regular and four extraordinary classes, embracing in all seventy pupils. These have private instruction once and sometimes twice each week, and each class performs before the whole school once a month.

Besides these regular classes, there are several which are organised for the furtherance of particular views;—a class in History has two lessons a week; one in Moral Philosophy two also; one in Roman Antiquities six; one in Blair's Rhetoric three; one in Mercantile arithmetic six; one in higher Mathematics three; one in Sallust three.

M. Guignon (from New-York) attends as an instructer in dancing; for which purpose the school is divided into fourteen classes, each of which receives three lessons a week.

The duties of the day begin immediately after five in the morning with the suitable offices of religion—At half past five there are exercises of a class in Latin, two classes in Greek, three in Mathematics, and one in Spanish. The rest of the School are meanwhile engaged in private study, always under inspection.

At a quarter past six the classes are changed: and there are one in Latin, one in Greek, three in Mathematics, one in Spanish, and one in History or Moral Philosophy.

Breakfast is at seven. From half past seven till nine there are no exercises but in declamation, and in dancing, (except it be for voluntary classes.)

At nine the exercises are resumed. Two classes are then employed with the Latin Instructers, one in Greek, two in Mathematics, one in Spanish, one in Reading, one in Writing, and one in French.

At ten there are two in French, two in Mathematics, one in Latin, one in Greek, one in Spanish, one in Reading, and one in Writing.

And thus the business of the school is continued till twelve. From twelve to one is for rest. One is the hour for dinner. At two the exercises are resumed as in the morning, and continued till five.

The hours from five till seven are designed for exercise and amusement. At this time the classes in Gymynastics have their instruction, when the weather permits.

Seven is the hour for the evening meal. After the devotional exercises of the evening at eight o'clock, the smaller boys are at once dismissed. The larger part of the school devote one hour more to study;—and at nine all retire.

Hamp. Gaz.

SCHOOLS IN BOSTON.

Report of the School Committee of the City of Boston on the State of the Schools, May, 1826.

In School Committee 26th May 1826.

Voted that Mr. H. J. Oliver, the special committee to prepare the Return of the several schools in the city, to be made to the Secretary of the Commonwealth, in compliance with the requirements of the Statute of 4th March last, entitled 'an act further to provide for the instruction of youth'--and to report to this Board,—be authorised and requested to make the Return, this day reported, to the Secretary of the Commonwealth, as from this Board.

Voted that the same Committee be requested to cause five hundred copies of the Report aforesaid to be printed in a pamphlet form, together with such of the documents accompanying it, as in his opinion, will be consistent with the rights of individuals, and conducive to public benefit.

Attest JOHN PIERPONT, Secretary.

The sub-committee appointed at a meeting of the School Committee on the seventh ultimo 'for the purpose of preparing a return of the several schools in this city, to be made to the Secretary of this Commonwealth, in compliance with the requirements of the Statute of the 4th of March last—entitled an act further to provide for the instruction of youth—have attended that service, having commenced upon the preliminary duty assigned them, that of *inquiry*, on the 8th and completed the same on the 17th instant, and now ask leave to report.

That the whole number of *Public* Schools in the city is 74 viz. 9 Grammar and 9 writing schools, one Latin school—one English High school for Boys, one English High school for Girls—51 schools for children between 4 and 7 years of age and denominated 'Primary Schools,' and two schools at the House of Industry at South Boston.

That the whole number of pupils at the above Schools is 7044. It may not be uninteresting in this place to state, that of *this number* of 7044, there are 218 *colored* children, who are participating in the advantages of *each branch* of instruction enjoyed at our public schools.

That the expense of tuition, fuel &c. for the current year is estimated to be $ 54,417:—without any reference to the cost of the several public buildings where those children over 7 years of age receive their instruction, and which are ten in number, the average cost of which, as appears from the books at the auditor's office, is but little short of $ 20,000 for each School House.

That the whole number of *Private* Schools in this city, as ascertained from a personal visit by your committee to each school is 141.

That the whole number of pupils at said schools is 3392 as will appear by the separate schedule of each ward—giving the numbers &c. at each school of those under 4—those from 4 to 7—those from 7 to 14, and those over 14 years of age—

and here it may be mentioned, that there are 272 children at School under the age of four years.

That the expense of instruction at these schools estimating from the most correct data which could be had, including the average expense of books &c. both at these and the public schools, for the current year, is $ 97,305 25.

That the *whole* number of schools in the city is 215. That the *whole* number of children at the public and private schools in this city at the present time is 10,436. That the *whole* amount of public and private tuition including expense of books as before expressed is $ 152, 722 25.

Your committee present the above particulars, together with the additional information required by the Act of the Legislature in the printed form accompanying this Report, which if it receive the sanction of the School Committee, will constitute the Return to be made at the Secretary of the Commonwealth's office.

The preceding report and return embrace, as has already appeared, the *private* schools of our city.—Strictly considered, and with all due deference to the Legislature, it was conceived by many of the Teachers—that that Body had no authority to demand of any town the information pertaining to this class of schools.—and hence that no town could require the information of any teacher of a private school—In some instances the questions were asked of your committee, why do you request this information of us? what is the object of it &c.—when on explanation, the information was very readily afforded.—Your committee would take this opportunity to express their thanks to the Teachers generally, for the promptitude and urbanity which characterised them in their answers, and, in several instances, in the aid afforded to your committee in making their inquiries and which have resulted in completing a return with regard to which the School Committee of Boston would unite with all teachers of Youth and their fellow citizens in general, in mutual congratulations, that we live in a day when the interests of learning are so generally and so liberally fostered, and for the encouraging belief, that under the blessing of God, they cannot but be attended with the most important and happy consequences.

ALBANY LANCASTER SCHOOL.

At an annual meeting of the members of the Albany Lancaster School Society, held at the capitol in the city of Albany on the 6th day of Feb. 1826—Samuel M. Hopkins was chosen chairman, and Benjamin F. Butler, secretary.

The trustees made their report to the society, which was read and ordered to be printed. The following are extracts.

The trustees of the Albany Lancaster School Society in conformity to the requirements of their act of incorporation, make their annual report as follows:

From the report of the teacher, it appears that the school has been well attended for the past year, and that the progress of the scholars has never been greater, owing in part to their less fluctuating attendance. The number of scholars that have received instruction during the year until the 6th of December last, is 743, and the number now on the class lists is 401, the average number daily attending is from 300 to 350; 58 cipher in books, and enter a portion of their calculations. Some of them have been through Daboll's Arithmetic; 92 cipher on the Lancasterian cards, and 117 write on ruled books; 15 boys and 10 girls are studying the English grammar, and the rules of reading, and all who are disposed for it, study geography.

The visiting committee who have from time to time visited the school, inspected its discipline, caused the scholars to go through examinations, and perform their several exercises before them, believe, that in propriety of reading, in penmanship, and in the neatness of their writing and ciphering books, in reciting compositions committed to memory, and in the rapid progress made in these acquirements, few common schools, perhaps none, can produce evidence of equal proficiency. Particular attention is paid to cleanliness and decency of appearance among the scholars; so that those who belong to the class, properly de-

nominated charity scholars, shall not form a contrast in appearance to the pay scholars; that is, the children of those who are not dependent, and who duly appreciating the superior advantages of this school, desire to give their children the benefit of it, and pay a moderate sum for their tuition.

In justice to the teacher, it is to be observed, that he continues in the discharge of his duties to manifest those talents and that fidelity, and regard for the welfare of the institution, which have distinguished him, since he first took charge of the school.

The treasurer's account for the last year, shows a debit of $1537 95, and a credit of $1210 84, leaving a balance in his hand, in favor of the society of $327 11. Among the debited items are $54 46, the balance of the preceding year, and $241 44 for tuition money received during the past year.

SIMEON DE WITT, Pres't.

Lewis C. Beck, Sec'ry.

Albany, Feb. 6, 1826.

MONITORIAL HIGH SCHOOL, GENESEO, NEW-YORK.

Several enterprising individuals of Livingston county, have formed an association for the purpose of establishing a school, at Geneseo, on an extensive scale, for the education of boys—in which the monitorial system of instruction is to be pursued. It is to be conducted on the same plan as Dr. Griscom's High School, in the city of New York; and is intended to accommodate 600 lads at once. Such an institution will be a blessing to that section of country, and the plan is worthy of imitation by every county in the state. The all important subject of education, at this time engrosses much of the public attention throughout the Union: a spirit of inquiry and action is aroused, from which we may anticipate the happiest results.

PRACTICAL EDUCATION ON THE CONTINENT OF EUROPE.

By a decree of the King of Holland, Chemistry and Mechanics applied to the useful arts, are to be taught in each of the universities in the Kingdom. Two new professorships have been added to the university of Leige—one of Metallurgy and Technology, and the other of Rural Economy.

CONNECTICUT SCHOOL FUND.

From the report of the Commissioner of the School Fund to the Legislature, it appears that the principal of the fund, consisting in bonds, stock, lands, and cash, amounts to $1,719,434. The interest due is $116,288. The whole number of persons in the state between the ages of four and sixteen, according to the enumeration in the month of August last, was 84,851. The number of school societies in the state is 203; the whole amount of moneys divided to them during the past year is $72,123 35, being at the rate of 85 cents to each person enumerated. The amount of interest on hand after paying the above dividend and the expenses of managing the fund, is $6151 18.

INSTRUCTION OF MECHANICS.

This subject is pursued with much vigor and zeal in France. Dupin, the celebrated engineer, seems to have given it the first impulse by a course of lectures at Paris. The Minister of Marine appointed Blouet, Professor of Hydrography to deliver a course of Geometry and Mechanics applied to arts and trades, at Dieppe, an important seaport. He commenced in October, 1825, at the city hall, and delivered his introductory lecture to an audience of four hundred persons.

Mention is made that there were at the above date no less than 44 similar courses, delivered in seaport towns in France, and 15 in cities in the interior.

CONNECTICUT COMMON SCHOOLS.

Extracts from the Report of the Committee appointed by the Legislature of Connecticut to inquire what alterations in the laws relating to Common Schools are necessary to raise their character and increase their usefulness.

The Committee deem the subject which they were called to investigate, to be one of vital importance to the State. The intellectual and moral culture of every member of the community, was the basis on which the founders of our happy institutions reared the whole structure of civil society. In favor of this fundamental principle of free government, they bore a testimony so noble, as to command the admiration of all wise men, to whom their history is known; and to vindicate to themselves the high renown of 'benefactors to the human race.' A like interest was felt by their immediate descendants in the general diffusion of knowledge; and the system of common schools continued to be an object of peculiar care to the State, and went on improving, until the public resources enabled the Legislature to grant it the late munificent endowment.

Placed on a footing so elevated, and justly preferred to every other interest, it was not unreasonably supposed that the results of the system would correspond with its means, and that these institutions would maintain their acknowledged pre-eminence over the primary schools of other states; at least that they would not fail to keep pace with the progress of general improvement in our own. Facts compel your committee to say, that, in their opinion, they have done neither. The States of New-York and Massachusetts begin *already*, to challenge a superiority for their common schools, although it is but a few years since they looked to Connecticut for their models, and sought the aid of her wisdom. The academies of this State have never been cheered with a solitary gleam of legislative bounty, and seem to be wholly excluded from the pale of legislative sympathies; yet many of them have flourished. The University of this city has risen chiefly by its own energies, and urged its way to eminence with little aid from the State which it exalts and adorns. Yet common schools, on which, as on a favorite child the public resources have been lavished with great liberality, *but with little care*, have been gradually declining in their relative standing. The result of the experiment has decided that no appropriations of money will secure the increasing prosperity of schools. They lighten the burden of the people, but they also diminish, and for that reason perhaps, their interest in these institutions. While your committee are reluctant to believe, with many of the most enlightened men with whom they have corresponded in relation to the subject, that the common schools are in no better condition than they would have been had they received no aid from the State, they are confirmed in the opinion that they have fallen far short of that excellence which they might have attained.

A reform in that part of the system relating to books, while it would promote economy, seems indispensable to the success of the schools. The continual fluctuation in the use of books with which the schools are inundated, subjects the parents to a heavy expense, and prevents that uniformity without which there can be no classification—a principle highly conducive to success in every grade of instruction. The selections are, not unfrequently, made with little judgement, and many books are used, fit only to corrupt the taste or the morals of youth.—The important business of preparing elementary books, has been left, too much, to unskilful hands—to men who have betrayed at every step, their utter ignorance of the first principles of the philosophy of the mind, a science to which the higher departments of education are greatly indebted, but whose aid has been little sought after in the lower, where it is most needed. This is an evil which the legislature, and the legislature *only*, can remedy.

Our elementary books should possess a more national character. The elements of our history, of our civil and political institutions, and of our religion, should be engraven on the memory of every child, and its earliest associations should be those of an American, a Republican, and a Christian. In this way, may the men of future generations be trained for the responsibility which awaits them, and become the safe depositaries of the rich inheritance which we now enjoy.

As it respects the qualifications of teachers, a matter of vital importance to the improvement of schools, the law has made no requisitions, but has left the subject

entirely to the discretion of the School Visiters. Your committee are of opinion that something would be gained by specifying the requisite qualifications, assuming for a standard such as are already possessed, with a distinct intimation that it is the policy of the State, gradually to raise this standard.

The condition of every school, as it regards the books used, the number of pupils, the branches taught, the time the school has been continued, the expenditures, with similar facts, should be presented annually to the legislature and to the public. This would have the two-fold effect of obtaining that information which would enlighten the path of legislation in future, and of operating as a powerful stimulus to the career of improvement. A knowledge of the fact, that the eye of the State, is watching their movements, and that their actual and comparative standing is to be known to the public, can hardly fail to increase the fidelity of teachers, the industry of pupils, and the zeal of parents.

The inefficiency of the system, has, in the opinion of your committee, arisen chiefly from the neglect of supervision on the part of the State. No measures have been taken to ascertain the actual condition of common schools. Their internal management, their character and prospects, have not sufficiently engaged the attention of the legislature.

With a view to invigorate and improve the system, the committee recommend the appointment of a Superintendent of Common Schools, whose duty it shall be to recommend suitable books to the adoption of School Visiters, and such modes of instruction and government as he may deem most expedient; and from the reports of the several School Societies, to prepare and present to the legislature, annually, a report, so far as he may obtain information, showing the actual condition of every school in the State, together with his proceedings for the year.

The committee further recommend that the duties of the superintendent of common schools be discharged by the Secretary of State, for the time being.

The fact that on these institutions, the great body of the people must ever depend, exclusively, for the means of education, invests them with a paramount importance, and establishes their claim to the peculiar and increasing regard of the Legislature. Of the 206 members who compose this honorable body, more than 180 are indebted for their education, entirely or chiefly, to common schools. Such men, it is confidently believed, while they are laudably employed in embellishing the structure of civil society, and in giving it a fair exterior, will not suffer its foundations to go to decay.—All which, with the accompanying bill for a public act, is respectfully submitted.

In behalf of the Committee, HAWLEY OLMSTEAD, Chairman.

GYMNASIUM IN BOSTON.

[When the article p. 436. was inserted, the subjoined Report had not appeared; and as the subject is one of the deepest interest to the well-being of the community, and to the prosperity of education, we presume its importance will be thought sufficient to justify our returning to the intelligence respecting the gymnasium, and presenting it in fuller detail.]

At a meeting of citizens of Boston, held at the Exchange Coffee House, on Thursday the 15th day of June, current, Mr. William Sullivan was chosen Chairman, and Mr. Charles P. Curtis, Secretary.

It appeared that the city authorities had granted the use of a piece of land at the westerly end of Boylston street, (lately the site of the Ropewalk,) for two years from the 1st of May, 1826,—and that one or more instructers could be had to conduct the exercises of the Gymnasium; that such an Institution would develope the physical powers of the pupils therein, and direct the use of them, in the duties and rational amusements of social life, and essentially promote health and vigor; that similar establishments in Europe had produced the effects expected from them; and that the Gymnasium of the University has produced the most salutary and beneficial consequences among the students of that seminary; that far

less of bodily strength and vigorous health, are found among the young men in this city, and especially among the *sedentary*, than might be, if a very practicable change of habits were introduced; and that a regular course of physical education would tend to prolong life, and to increase the proper enjoyment of it; that from these, and similar views, it was unanimously resolved by this meeting:

First. That it is expedient to attempt the establishment of a Gymnastic School in the city of Boston.

Secondly. That William Sullivan, John C. Warren, George Ticknor, John G. Coffin, and John S. Foster, together with such an addition to their number as they may select, not exceeding five, be a committee to carry the first resolution into effect, in conformity with the public notice for calling this meeting; that said committee be authorised to ask the voluntary contributions of the Citizens of Boston, for the establishment of a Gymnasium, at such time, and in such manner, as they may think expedient; and to receive and apply such contributions in establishing the same.

Thirdly. That this meeting have received with great pleasure the deputation of young gentlemen from the *University* at Cambridge, and are benefitted and obliged by the information derived from this source; that the interest which the members of the University have taken in the object of this meeting, is highly creditable to them; and is regarded as a pleasing demonstration of public spirit, and an honorable promise of future usefulness.

The deputation from the University presented the subjoined letter, and verbally explained the course of exercises at the College Gymnasium, and its beneficial effects. In behalf of this committee it was stated to the meeting, that the health of the students had been greatly improved; that intellectual vigor was found to be the consequence of physical improvement; that the diseases and inquietudes of feeble digestion, had disappeared from among the students; that 'the demand for sensation' too frequently supplied in unoccupied periods, by *smoking*, was now fully satisfied by the manly exercises of the Gymnasium; that the regularity with which the course of instruction was pursued, from simple to masterly movements, was such as to secure the pupils from injurious accidents, and that they were surprised to find how easily and securely exercises might be performed, which would seem to the uninstructed 'difficult, if not impracticable;' that its *social* effects were not *the least* of its consequences to be valued, inasmuch as one common interest, in a commendable pursuit, had brought into contact and friendly feeling, those who might have passed the whole period of college life without being more to each other than *mere strangers*.

Voted, That the transactions of this meeting be published.

True copy of proceedings.

CHARLES P. CURTIS, Secretary.

Letter of the Deputation from the University.

To the Chairman of the Committee on the subject of establishing a Gymnasium in Boston.

Sir—Perceiving, by your address to the citizens, published on the 12th inst. in the Advertiser, that you have in consideration, the establishment of a Gymnasium for the city of Boston, the students of Harvard University, members of the Gymnasium there, have thought proper to address to you a few remarks, which you are at liberty to use as you see fit.

At a full meeting of the members of the Gymnasium, holden in College Chapel, on the 13th inst. it was voted to express our opinion on the subject of your address, and the undersigned were appointed a committee to carry that resolution into effect.

From the short experience we have had in gymnastic exercises we believe them highly beneficial, and we feel a sincere desire that others should participate in the advantages to be derived from them. The improvement in health has been perceptible, and general, among all those who have engaged in them. The

cheerfulness which they produce, and the increased agility which results from them, are remarkable. The mind sympathises with the body, and is equally acted on. All idle apprehensions of danger have long since been removed; and we are surprised at the ease with which we perform motions, that at first seemed difficult, if not impracticable.

We are glad to find physical education gaining ground; and hope it may soon become a regular part of the system of education. The soldier, sailor, traveller, and men of many mechanical employments, find the accomplishments of the gymnasium of the first necessity in their daily business; and in cases of emergency, they are of the highest importance in every walk of life. The object of this communication is not however, to enter into an argument on the proposed establishment, but simply to express the pleasure we feel, that such a one is in contemplation; and to assure you, that so far as can be argued from its popularity here, you have the highest prospect of success. With the highest respect, &c.

John H. W. Page, Edward North, Robert Rantoul, Jr., *Seniors;* Ben. T. Crowninshield, Epes Sargent Dixwell, *Juniors;* S. M. E. Kittle, R. C. Winthrop, Charles C. Emerson, James Jackson, Jr., *Sophomores;* Benj. M. Saul, Benigno Davenport, W. H. Channing, *Freshmen.*

HARVARD UNIVERSITY, *Cambridge, June* 14, 1826.

BOOKS FOR CHILDREN.

Messrs. Monroe and Francis, Boston, have just printed an edition of Miss Edgeworth's Early Lessons, arranged in a different manner from any other heretofore published—having put *Harry and Lucy* in one volume, *Frank* in one volume, and *Rosamond* in two volumes, with the addition of cuts from original designs made by Mr. D. C. Johnstone of this city. Each of the works can be sold separate, and will be an excellent book for reading in classes. The first one has already been introduced in this way.

We have seen copies of the new edition of Harry and Lucy and of Frank. The books are neatly executed: if used as reading books, they will be found as useful in their sphere as the Encyclopedia is to adults: that they possess the additional advantage of being highly entertaining we need hardly say. We cordially wish the publishers success in their excellent undertaking. In our next number we shall take up these volumes individually, as their importance demands.

REV. MR. NEWLAND'S ESSAY ON EDUCATION.

The principles laid down by Mr. Newland are these: 1. That exercise is the chief means of cultivating and improving the mind. 2. That the knowledge already in the student's possession should be employed as the means of conducting him to some higher attainment. 3. That association is a consideration of great importance in tuition. The concluding observations of the essay are these: 1. That the Christian religion should form a part of every system of education. 2. That care should be taken, in an academical education, not to weaken the influence of filial and parental affection. 3. That in every system of education, pains should be taken to prevent the loss of time.—*Lond. Evan. Mag.*

BRITISH AND FOREIGN SCHOOL SOCIETY.

Since last year, it appears, that there have been added to the Central Schools 500 boys and 300 girls. Since the commencement of the Institution, there have been educated 16,120 boys, and 7,290 girls—in all 24,010.

There are 60 Assistant Schools in London, at which 10,000 children are educated.

In Ireland there were at first only 261 Schools; to these 1,500 have been added. The number of children educated amounts to 100,000; and 200 masters and 300 mistresses, are at present receiving instruction for that country. The total number of instructers at present is 1,171, among whom gratuities to the amount of *L* 6,250 have been distributed. The number of cheap books sold last year was 122,000, and, since the commencement of the Institution, 1,089,703.

NOTICES.

WORKS IN THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.

A Gazetteer of the State of New Hampshire,—by John Farmer and Jacob B. Moore.—Embellished with an accurate Map of the State, and several other Engravings: By Abel Bowen. Concord: 1823. 12mo. pp. 276.

A work like this for every state in the Union, would be a valuable acquisition to every school and every family, as well as to persons engaged in business, and individuals actuated merely by curiosity, or by a desire for useful information. This gazetteer furnishes a fund of intelligence such as most persons have occasion for in their daily occupations or engagements. It seems well adapted to produce in the great body of the population of New-Hampshire, particularly, a taste for historical reading, for statistics, and topography; as well as an attachment to the scenes, the society, and the institutions of their native State.

But it is in schools that its use will produce the best results. The early use of the gazetteer will cherish a spirit of attentive observation, and of useful investigation; and give a seasonable and practical direction to the mental habits of youth, which cannot fail to produce a manly and intelligent patriotism in the bosom of manhood.

It has been justly regretted that, whilst many school books furnish so much information in the science of Geography, few afford the means of acquiring the details of local and topographical knowledge which are serviceable to the business of life. So much of the work before us is presented in the gazetteer form, that it is not so well adapted to school use as it might otherwise have been. Still while the whole work will be found very interesting as a *reading book* for schools, there are upwards of sixty pages of it devoted to a regular topographical sketch of the State; and it is this part of the volume which will be found best adapted to the general purposes of instruction.

As the limits of a notice forbid our indulging in further remarks, we will only express our hope that the State of Massachusetts will soon be furnished with a similar volume. The present work seems to be carefully and successfully executed. Its circulation will, we hope, correspond to its merits, and amply remunerate the enterprise and diligence of its compilers. We subjoin its leading topics.

'I. A general view of the State of New Hampshire, comprehending the boundaries and area; divisions; face of the country; soil and productions; climate; health and longevity; mountains; lakes and rivers; canals; turnpikes and bridges; geology and mineralogy; government and laws; revenue and expenses; militia; population; manufactures and commerce; literary institutions; education; manners and customs; religion; societies; banks; state house; penetentiary; curiosities; Indians; and history.

II. A general view of the Counties, topographical and historical; with statistical tables, exhibiting the number of meeting-houses, school-houses, taverns, stores, mills, factories, &c. in each.

III. A general description of Towns, and of all the mountains, lakes, ponds, rivers, &c., comprehending 1. A concise description of the several towns in the state, in relation to their boundaries, divisions, mountains, lakes, ponds, &c. 2. The early history of each town; names of the first settlers, and what were their hardships and adventures; instances of longevity, or of great mortality; and short biographical notices of the most distinguished and useful men. 3. A concise notice of the formation of the first churches in the several towns; the names of those who have been successively ordained as ministers, and the time of their settlement, removal or death. Also, notices of permanent charitable and other institutions, literary societies, &c.'

Friend of Youth; or a new selection of Lessons, in Prose and Verse, for Schools and Families, to imbue the Young with sentiments of Piety, Humanity, and universal Benevolence: By Noah Worcester, D. D. Second edition. Boston: 1823. 12mo. pp. 276.

At a time when science and information are made the leading subjects even in the compilation of books of reading lessons, it would seem very desirable that the grand principles which breath peace and good will into the hearts of men, should have a volume devoted to them.

A *moral* reading-book was much wanted for the use of schools and families; and the Friend of Youth seems excellently suited to the purpose. It teaches by example, rather than by precept. It contains numerous illustrations, from history, and other sources, of the virtues which it aims to inculcate. That this is the most successful, as well as the most interesting method of instructing the young, is a truth familiar to all attentive parents and teachers.

Much good will probably result in after life to the young reader of this book. He will be trained up in a rooted aversion to the exercise of cruelty in every shape; whether he sees the passions vented on man or beast, on individuals or communities. He will enter on the stage of manhood prepared to co-operate with every benevolent effort public or private, and especially to devote all his influence to the success of those institutions which aim at the extermination of war.

A few questions at the close of each section would have contributed to the moral influence of the work; the intelligent teacher, however, will not omit to put these orally to his pupils.

Discourses on Cold and Warm Bathing; with remarks on the effects of drinking cold water in warm weather.—By John G. Coffin, M. D. A second edition. Boston, 1826. 12mo. pp. 70.

Physical education has few aids more important than that of bathing. But none in so common use has been so perverted or misunderstood. Dr. Coffin's manual will be found a very serviceable guide to individuals who occasionally or customarily resort to this pleasant expedient for renovating the energies of the corporeal system, and confirming and prolonging health.

Bathing requires attention to render it a healthful and beneficial practice; and parents who are desirous of exercising a judicious superintendence over this department of their children's physical improvement will derive much benefit from this treatise.

The season of the year, as well as the republication of Dr. Coffin's tract prompts us to suggest the following question.—Would it not be advantageous, in cities at least, to have a place assigned for the purpose of bathing, where youth might without exposure or risk, enjoy the benefit of this exercise? But little expense would be incurred to procure the requisite accommodations and a careful superintendent.

BOOKS FOR CHILDREN.

The Son of a Genius; a Tale for the use of Youth. By the Author of the History of an Officer's Widow and Family, Clergyman's Widow and Family, &c. Boston. 18mo. pp. 216.

Mrs. Hoffland's powers as a writer for the young have been often and deeply felt by the juvenile reader. In the present instance the sympathies of youth are finely touched, and to a fine moral issue.

The lesson which is read on the evils of instability of purpose, and of a false reliance on genius, is a very impressive one: it abounds with the most forcible and pathetic illustrations. The story cannot be read but with the deepest interest;

and if the tears which it draws from the youthful reader are unaccompanied by good resolutions—no pains certainly have been spared by the writer to produce such a result.

We would not have occupied our readers' time with remarks on a book so well known in some parts of this country, if we had not known that the sale and the circulation of children's books, is apt—more than any other branch of publishing and bookselling business—to be regulated by local and pecuniary considerations; and that, accordingly, in not a few places, many of the best books for children never find their way into general use.

The Deformed Boy: by the Author of Redwood &c. Boston, 1826. 18mo. pp. 40.

It is a circumstance on which we may congratulate parents and all, indeed, who take an interest in the progress and improvement of the young, that a writer possessed of the qualifications of the author of Redwood, has turned her attention to the department of books for children. The literary rank of such works does not hold up to authors the reward of distinguished fame. But there is none of the walks of literature in which a benevolent and accomplished mind may dispense more gratification, or confer more sure and lasting benefits.

The Deformed Boy is a narrative from real life; and, like all other judicious selections from the great volume of truth, has as many charms as the brightest fiction. A little more simplicity of thought and plainness of style, in the didactic parts of the book, would be improvements of value. But the story itself is told in an easy and natural way; and the moral impressions it produces, are all of the best kind.

ANSWERS TO CORRESPONDENTS.

Received since our last:

Prospectus of the Polytechnic School, Schenectady, New-York.

School Exercises and Advertisement of the La Fayette Female Seminary, Lexington, Kentucky.

A friendly correspondent has urged the importance of the *maternal department* of education, and the propriety of giving it a more definite place in the pages of the journal. We agree with our correspondent in what he has suggested; and if there has been any apparent neglect of a subject of so much importance, it has arisen solely from a desire to take up this department of our work to the best advantage. We wished in the first place to accumulate and furnish facts, which, in this as well as every other subject, we think the safest and the most beneficial method of proceeding. In forming theories we may err, and in attempting to lay down rules we may dogmatise, rather than instruct; but in tracing and stating facts we secure ourselves comparatively from error and injury. Besides, every reflecting mother will have and ought to have, her own views and plans by which to educate her children. What mothers as well as all other instructers need for guidance, is, access to facts of successful and of unsuccessful experiment. We hoped, when commencing the journal, that parents of experience and of skill would aid us in this way more extensively than they have done. Meantime we have not neglected this department. Many valuable ideas for the guidance of parents have been presented in our articles on infant schools, and in taking notice of children's books we have endeavored to keep the superintending care of mothers always in view.

In our present number our correspondent will find some interesting thoughts on maternal influence; and among the 'Questions on Education' are some which cannot fail to suggest many valuable hints to mothers for the physical education of infants.

The illness of a contributor, on whom we had placed much reliance in this department of our work, has delayed an article more expressly designed to aid the efforts of mothers; and which will form the introduction to a regular series of articles under this head.

AMERICAN

JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

No. VIII. AUGUST, 1826. Vol. I.

EDUCATION OF INFANTS.

[We have been favored with the book published by Mr. Wilderspin of whom mention is made in our first number. The perusal of this interesting little volume must we think afford the highest gratification to the mind of every benevolent person, and especially to the feelings of parents. The experiment of educating infants has been fairly and successfully made in various parts of England, but in none perhaps with more success than in London, and particularly in the Spitalfields school under the care of Mr Wilderspin. We regret that infant schools abroad have been open to the poor only, and that the benefits resulting from this excellent institution have been restricted to one class of the community, while they are so desirable to all.

The amusements of the nursery will sometimes fail to enliven or to please the infant mind; and incessant care will impair the health of the most attentive of mothers. But even with every possible advantage, private superintendence and instruction, though highly desirable and, indeed, indispensable for a part of the day, cannot furnish the excitement, the vivacity, the glow of a numerous assemblage of children nearly of the same age, and whose sympathies whilst they are complete in themselves, furnish their superintendent with the most powerful and the most happy means of direction and control.

The English institutions for infants, as well as the few which have been partially attempted in our own country, though they bear the name of schools,—because one of their objects is instruction,—are intended chiefly to secure the health and the happiness of their little pupils. The acquisition of knowledge is a subordinate point. The lessons and exercises partake but little of the dulness and formality commonly associated with the idea of school. They em-

brace a delightful and varied culture of the mind, addressed strikingly and pleasingly to the senses, and calculated to promote health by a free exercise of the members of the body. The children, in a word, are kept safe from harm, delighted with their associates and their employments, and pleased with the consciousness of improvement: they are trained to every pure and generous and pious feeling, and are brought up in habits of activity and industry. All these advantages are found to result from infant schools; and we should consider it a misfortune, if, in this country, the benefits of these seminaries should not be open to every class.

The Lancasterian schools in their early stage were deemed fit for none but the poor, because the Lancasterian system was first introduced in schools designed for that class of the community. Subsequent experience, however, has proved them to be best adapted for the instruction of all ranks. A similar result will take place, we have no doubt, with infant schools.]

Method of opening the Infant School, Spitalfields, London.

The children being assembled, they are desired to stand up, and immediately afterwards to kneel down, all close to their seats and as silent as possible: those who are not strong enough to kneel are allowed to sit on the ground. This being done, a child is placed in the centre of the school and repeats the following prayer.

'O God, our heavenly Father, thou art good to us; we would serve thee; we have sinned and done wrong many times. Jesus Christ died on the cross for us. Forgive our sins for Jesus' sake; may the holy spirit change our hearts, and make us to love God; help us to day to be good children and to do what is right. Keep us from wicked thoughts and bad tempers; make us try to learn all that we are taught; keep us in health all the day. We would always think of God, and when we die may we go to heaven. God bless our fathers and mothers, and sisters and brothers, and our teachers, and make us obedient and kind for Jesus Christ's sake. Amen.'

The children afterwards repeat the Lord's prayer, and then sing a hymn; immediately after which they proceed to their lessons; which are fixed to what are called lesson-posts. The lesson-post consists of an upright piece of deal, containing a slide to receive the lessons. To each of these posts there is a monitor, who is provided with a piece of cane for a pointer. This post is placed opposite to where his class sits; and every class has a post, up to which their monitor brings the children three or four at a time, according to the number of children he has in his class. We have fourteen classes, and sometimes more, which are regularly numbered, so that

we have one hundred children moving and saying their lessons at one time. When these lessons are completed the children are supplied with pictures, which they put on the post, the same as the spelling and reading lessons, but say them in a different manner. We find that if a class always say their lesson at one post, it soon loses its attraction; and consequently, although we cannot change them about from post to post in the spelling and reading lessons, because it would be useless to put a child to a reading post that did not know its letters, yet we can do so in the picture lessons, as the children are all alike in learning the objects.—One child can learn an object as quick as another, so that we have many children that can tell the name of different subjects, and even the names of all the geometrical figures, who do not know all the letters in the alphabet; and I have had children who one would think were complete blockheads, on account of their not being able to learn the alphabet so quickly as some of the other children, and yet those very children would learn things which appeared to me ten times more difficult. This proves the necessity of variety, and how difficult it is to legislate for children; instead therefore of the children standing opposite their own post, they go round from one to another repeating whatever they find at each post, until they have been all round the school; for instance, at No. 1 post there may be the following objects; the horse, the ass, the zebra, the cow, the sheep, the goat, the springing-antelope, the camelopard, the camel, the wild-boar, the rhinoceros, the elephant, the hippopotamus, the lion, the tiger, the leopard, the civet, the weazel, the great white bear, the hyena, the fox, the greenland dog, the hare, the mole, the squirrel, the kangaroo, the porcupine, the racoon.—Before commencing these lessons two boys are selected by the master, who perhaps are not monitors; these two boys bring the children up to a chalk line that is made near No. 1 post, eight at a time; one of the boys gets eight children standing up ready, and always beginning at one end of the school, and takes them to this chalk line, whilst the other boy takes them to No. 1 post, and delivers them up to the charge of No. 1 monitor. No. 1 monitor then points to the different animals with a pointer, until the name of every one that is on his plate has been repeated; this done, he delivers them to No. 2 monitor, who has a different picture at his post; perhaps the following:—fishmonger, mason, hatter, cooper, butcher, blacksmith, fruiterer, distiller, grocer, turner, carpenter, tallow-chandler, milliner, dyer, druggist, wheelwright, shoemaker, baker, printer, coach-maker, bookseller, bricklayer, linen-draper, cabinet-maker, brewer, painter, bookbinder. This done, No. 2 monitor delivers them over to No. 3 monitor, and No. 3 monitor to No. 4 and so on successively until there are about 100 children on the move at one time, all saying different

objects, and every child says the whole of the objects at every post; this great variety keeps up the attention, and their moving from post to post, promotes their health. Should any person inquire what can be the use of the children learning these things, I would reply that different children have a different genius, and their repeating the names of the different objects gives them the habit of pronouncing the different names of the respective objects, as well as an idea of their respective forms, so that by this means a ground work is made for the *master himself* to act upon when he is teaching the children by question and answer, which is generally acknowleged to be the most efficient method yet known of calling forth the thinking powers of children.

A method of teaching the Alphabet and giving Ideas of things at the same time.

As the human mind is formed for an endless variety, the oftener the scene can be changed the better, especially for children; for if little children are kept too long at one thing, they become disgusted and weary of it, and then their minds are not in a fit state to receive instruction. I cannot help thinking, that many persons, from over anxiety to bring children forward in their learning, actually defeat their own intentions, by keeping the mind too constantly fixed upon one object. Where can be the utility of keeping a number of little children sitting in one position, for hours after they have said their lessons, and not suffering them to speak or exchange an idea with each other? No better way, in my humble opinion, can be taken to stupify them than such a mode; for little children are naturally lively, and if they are not suffered to move, but kept constantly in one position, they not only become disgusted with their lessons, but likewise with their school. This, perhaps, is one of the reasons why so many children cry on going to school; but as one of the principal ends in view in *Infant schools*, is to make the children happy, as well as to instruct them, so it is thought expedient to change the scene as often as possible. With this view the following method has been adopted.

We have 26 cards, and each card has on it one letter of the alphabet, and some object in nature; the first has letter A on the top and an apple painted on the bottom; the children are desired to go into the gallery, which is simply seats elevated one above another at one end of the school like stairs; the master places himself before the children in a situation so that they can see him and he them, and being thus situated he proceeds nearly as follows.

Q. Where am I? *A.* Opposite to us. *Q.* What is on the right side of me? *A.* A lady. *Q.* What is on the left side of me? *A.* A chair. *Q.* What is behind me? *A.* A desk. *Q.* Who are before me? *A* We children. *Q.* What do I hold up in my hand?

A. Letter A for apple. *Q.* Which hand do I hold it up with? *A.* The right hand. *Q.* Spell it. *A.* A-p-p-l-e. *Q.* How is an apple produced? *A.* It grows on a tree. *Q.* What part of the tree is in the ground? *A.* The root. *Q.* What is that which comes out of the ground? *A.* The stem. *Q.* If the stem grows up strait, in what position would you call it? *A.* Perpendicular. *Q.* What is on the stem? *A.* Branches. *Q.* What is on the branches? *A.* Leaves, and they are green.

Q. Is there any thing besides leaves on the branches? *A.* Yes; apples. *Q.* What was it before it became an apple? *A.* Blossom. *Q.* What part of the blossom becomes fruit? *A.* The inside. *Q.* What becomes of the leaves of the blossom? *A.* They fall off the tree. *Q.* What was it before it became blossom? *A.* A Bud. *Q.* What caused the buds to become larger and produce leaves and blossom? *A.* The sap. *Q.* What is sap? *A.* A juice. *Q.* How can the sap make the buds larger? *A.* It comes out of the root and goes up the stem. *Q.* Where next? *A.* Through the branches into the buds. *Q.* What do the buds produce? *A.* Some buds produce leaves; some blossoms, and some a shoot? *Q.* What do you mean by a shoot? *A.* A shoot is a young branch which is green at first but becomes hard by age. *Q.* What part becomes hard first? *A.* The bottom.

B.

Q. What is this? *A.* B for baker, for butter, for bacon, for brewer, for button, for bell, &c. &c. The teacher can take any of these names he pleases, for instance, the first: Children, let me hear you spell baker. *A.* B-a-k-e-r. *Q* What is a baker? *A.* A man that makes bread. *Q.* What is bread made of? *A.* It is made of flour, water, yeast, and a little salt. *Q.* What is flour made of? *A.* Wheat. *Q.* How is it made? *A.* Ground to powder in a mill? *Q.* What makes the mill go round? *A.* The wind, if it is a windmill. *Q.* Are there any other kinds of mills? *A.* Yes; mills that go by water, mills that are drawn round by horses, and mills that go by steam. *Q.* When the flour and water and yeast are mixed together, what does the baker do? *A.* Bake them in an oven. *Q.* What is the use of bread? *A.* For children to eat. *Q.* Who causes the corn to grow? *A.* Almighty God.

C.

Q. What is this? *A.* It is letter C for cow, c-o-w, and for cat, &c. *Q.* What is the use of the cow? *A.* The cow gives us milk to put into the tea. *Q.* Is milk used for any other purpose, besides putting it into tea? *A.* Yes, it is used to put into puddings, and for many other things. *Q.* Name some of the other things. *A.* It is used to make butter and cheese. *Q.* What part of it makes butter. *A.* The cream which swims at the top of the milk. *Q.*

How is it made into butter? *A.* It is put into a thing called a churn, in the shape of a barrel. *Q.* What is done next? *A.* The churn is turned round by means of a handle, and the motion turns the cream into butter. *Q.* What is the use of butter? *A.* To put on bread, and to put into pye-crust, and many other nice things. *Q.* Of what color is butter? *A.* It is generally yellow. *Q.* Are there any other things made of milk? *A.* Yes, many things; but the principal one is cheese. *Q.* How is cheese made? *A.* The milk is turned into curds and whey; which is done by putting a liquid into it called rennet. *Q.* What part of the curd and whey is made into cheese? *A.* The curd, which is put into a press; and when it has been in the press a few days it becomes cheese. *Q.* Is the flesh of the cow useful? *A.* Yes; it is eaten, and is called beef; and the flesh of the young calf is called veal. *Q.* Is the skin of the cow or calf of any use? *A.* Yes, the skin of the cow is manufactured into leather for the soles of shoes. *Q.* What is made with the calf skin? *A.* The top of the shoe, which is called the upper leather. *Q.* Are there any other parts of the cow that are useful? *A.* Yes; the horns, which are mode into combs, handles of knives, forks, and other things. *Q.* What is made of the hoofs that come off the cow's feet? *A.* Glue to join boards together. *Q.* Who made the cow? A. Almighty God.

D.

Q. What is this? *A.* Letter D, for dog, for dove, for draper, &c. *Q.* What is the use of the dog? *A.* To guard the house and keep thieves away? *Q.* How can a dog guard the house and keep thieves away? *A.* By barking to wake the persons who live in the house. *Q.* Is the dog of any other use? *A.* Yes, to draw under a truck. *Q.* Does he do as his master bids him? *A.* Yes, and knows his master from any other person. *Q.* Is the dog a faithful animal? *A.* Yes, very faithful; he has been known to die of grief for the loss of his master. *Q.* Can you mention an instance of the dog's faithfulness? *A.* Yes; a dog waited at the gates of the Fleet prison for hours every day for nearly two years, because his master was confined in the prison. *Q.* Can you mention another instance of the dog's faithfulness? *A.* Yes; a dog lay down on his master's grave in a church yard in London for many weeks. *Q.* How did the dog get food? *A.* The people who lived near noticed him, and brought him victuals. *Q.* Did the people do any thing besides giving him victuals? *A.* Yes, they made a house for him for fear he should die with wet and cold. *Q.* How long did he stay there? *A.* Until the people took him away because he howled dreadfully when the organ played on Sundays. *Q.* Is it right to beat a dog? *A.* No, it is very wrong to use any animal ill, because we do not like to be beaten ourselves. *Q.* Did Al-

mighty God make the dog? *A.* Yes; and every thing else that has life.

Plan for teaching Infant children by the aid of Pictures.

To give the children general information, it has been found necessary to have recourse to pictures* of natural history, such as of birds, beasts, fishes, flowers, insects, &c. all of which tend to show the glory of God; and as colors attract the attention of the children as soon as any thing, they eagerly inquire what such a thing is, and this gives the teacher an opportunity of instructing them to great advantage; for when a child, of his own free will, eagerly desires to be informed, I think he will generally profit most by such information.

There are also pictures of public buildings, and of the different trades; by the former, the children acquire much information, by explaining to them the use of the buildings, in what year they were built, &c.; and by the latter, you may find out the bias of a child's inclination. Some would like to be shoe-makers, others builders, others weavers, brewers, &c.; in short it is both pleasing and edifying to hear the children give answers to the different questions. I have one little boy who would like to be a doctor; and when asked why he made choice of that profession, in preference to any other, his answer was, 'Because he should like to cure all the sick people.' If parents did but study the inclinations of their children a little more than they do, I humbly conceive, that there would be more eminent men, in every profession than there are. It is great imprudence to determine what business children may be adapted for, before their tempers and inclinations are well known; every one, says Horace, is best in his own profession—that which fits us best, is best; nor is any thing more fitting than that every one should consider his own genius and capacity, and act accordingly.

As it is possible that a person may be very clever in his business or profession, and yet not be a christian, it has been thought necessary to direct the children's attention to the Scriptures, even at this early age, and to endeavor, if possible, to lay a solid foundation in the infant mind, and to teach them to venerate the Bible, and to fear and love its Divine Author. Many difficulties lay in the way of attaining so desirable an end; the principal one arose from their inability to read well any part of the Bible. Some parents are quite delighted if their children can read a chapter or two in the Bible, and think that when they can do this, they have arrived at the

* See life of Dr. Doddridge:—'His parents brought him up in the early knowledge of religion before he could read, his mother taught him the history of the Old and New Testament, by the assistance of some Dutch tiles in the chimney of the room, where they usually sat; and accompanied her instructions with such wise and pious reflections, as made strong and lasting impressions upon his heart.'

summit of knowledge, without once considering, whether they understand one sentence of what they read; and how can it be expected that they should understand, when no previous ground-work has ever been attempted to be laid, at the time they receive their first impressions, and imbibe their first ideas? Every man comes into the world without a single innate idea, yet with a capacity to receive knowledge of every kind, and is thereby capable of becoming intelligent and wise. In his infancy he would take hold of the most poisonous reptile, that would sting him to death in an instant; would attempt to stroke the lion with as little fear as he would the lamb; in short, he is incapable of distinguishing friend from foe. So wonderfully is man formed by his adorable Creator, that he is capable of increasing in knowledge, and advancing towards perfection to all eternity, without ever being able to arrive at it. The first thing that attracts his attention, even when in the cradle, is a light; and we may venture to say, the next thing that attracts his notice, are bright colours; it is for this reason, that pictures of Scripture history have been selected, such as Joseph and his brethren—Christ raising Lazarus from the dead—the Nativity—flight into Egypt—Christ disputing with the doctors—Christ baptised by John—curing the blind and lame—the last Supper—the Crucifixion—Resurrection—Ascension, &c. &c.

To begin with Joseph and his brethren, the following method is adopted:—the picture being suspended against the wall, and one class of the children standing opposite to it, the master repeats the following passages: 'And Joseph dreamed a dream, and he told it to his brethren; and they hated him yet the more. And he said unto them, hear, I pray you, the dream which I have dreamed; for behold, we were binding sheaves in the field, and lo! my sheaf arose and also stood upright; and behold, your sheaves stood round about, and made obeisance to my sheaf.'

The teacher being provided with a pointer, will point to the picture and put the following questions, or such as he may think proper, to the children:—

Q. What is this? *A.* Joseph's first dream. *Q.* What is a dream? *A.* When you dream, you see things during the time of sleep. *Q.* Did any of you ever dream any thing?

Here the children will repeat what they have dreamed, perhaps something like the following. Please sir, once I dreamed I was in a garden. *Q.* What did you see? *A.* I saw flowers and such nice apples. *Q.* How do you know it was a dream? *A.* Because when I awoke, I found I was in bed.

During this recital the children will listen very attentively, for they are highly pleased to hear each other's relation. The master having satisfied himself that the children, in some measure, understand the nature of a dream, he may proceed as follows:—

Q. What did Joseph dream about first? *A.* He dreamed that his brother's sheaves made obeisance to his sheaf. *Q.* What is a sheaf? *A.* A bundle of corn. *Q.* What do you understand by making obeisance? *A.* To bend your body, which we call making a bow. *Q.* What is binding sheaves? *A.* To bind them, which they do with a band of twisted straw. *Q.* How many brothers had Joseph? *A.* Eleven. *Q.* What was Joseph's father's name? *A.* Jacob, who is sometimes called Israel.

And it is further written concerning Joseph, that he dreamed yet another dream, and told it to his brethren, and said, behold, I have dreamed a dream more; and behold the sun and the moon and the eleven stars made obeisance to me.

Q. What do you understand by the sun? *A.* The sun is that bright object in the sky which shines in the day time, and which gives us heat and light. *Q.* Who made the sun? *A.* Almighty God. *Q.* For what purpose did God make the sun? *A.* To warm and nourish the earth and every thing upon it. *Q.* What do you mean by the earth? *A.* The ground on which we walk, and on which the corn, trees, and flowers grow. *Q.* What is it that makes them grow? *A.* The heat and light of the sun. *Q.* Does it require any thing else to make them grow? *A.* Yes, rain, and the assistance of Almighty God. *Q.* What is the moon? *A.* That object which is placed in the sky, and shines in the night, and appears larger than the stars. *Q.* What do you mean by the stars? *A.* Those bright objects that appear in the sky at night. *Q.* What are they? *A.* Some of them are worlds, and others are suns, to give them light. *Q.* Who placed them there? *A.* Almighty God. *Q.* Should we fear and love him for his goodness? *A.* Yes, and for his mercy towards us. *Q.* Do you think it wonderful that God should make all these things? A. Yes. *Q.* Are there any more things that are wonderful to you? *A.* Yes;—

Where'er we turn our wondering eyes,
His skill and power we see;
Wonders on wonders grandly rise,
And speak the Deity.

Q. Who is the Deity? *A.* Almighty God.

Reuben interceding with his Brethren for the Life of Joseph.

And Reuben said unto them, shed no blood, but cast him into this pit, that is in the wilderness, and lay no hand upon him; that he might rid him out of their hands, to deliver him to his father again.

Q. Who was Reuben? *A.* One of the brothers of Joseph. *Q.* What is a pit? *A.* A deep hole in the ground. *Q.* What is a wilderness? *A.* A place that is uninhabited, and where nothing grows except thorns and briers.

Master.

My little children, our minds may be compared to a wilderness, and unless they are watered by divine truth which comes from God, they would produce nothing but evil thoughts, which would break forth into bad actions; an evil thought does as much harm to the mind as a thorn would in any part of the body, and if it be brought into action, it not only hurts us, but other persons besides, and therefore children should come to school to have their minds improved, that they may bring forth good thoughts, and good actions, and then, instead of a wilderness, their minds may be compared to a garden.

Q. What kind of coat had Joseph? *A.* A coat of many colors. *Q.* Did Joseph's brethren say any thing among themselves when they saw Joseph afar off? *A.* Yes; they said one to another, behold this dreamer cometh, come now therefore and let us slay him, and cast him into some pit. *Q.* What do slay and cast mean? A. To slay meant to kill, and to cast, meant to throw his dead body into a pit. *Q.* Did they put him into the pit? *A.* Yes, but there was no water in it, so they put him in alive. *Q.* What was the reason that Joseph's brothers wanted to put him out of the way? *A.* Because of his dreams, and for fear that he should become their master. *Q.* After they had put him in the pit what did they do? *A.* They sat down and eat bread, and while they were eating it, they saw a number of men with their camels, and they sold him to them. *Q.* What did they do with Joseph's coat? *A.* They killed a kid and dipped the coat in its blood, that Joseph's father might think he had been killed by some wild beast. *Q.* What is a kid? *A.* A young goat. *Q.* What were those men called who bought Joseph? A. Ishmaelites. *Q.* Where did the Ishmaelites take him to? *A.* They took him to Egypt, and a man named Potiphar, an officer of Pharaoh, bought him. *Q.* Who was Pharaoh? *A.* The king of Egypt. *Q.* Was Joseph a good servant? *A.* Yes, and his master made him head over the other servants. *Q.* Did Joseph remain head servant? *A.* No, his mistress told a falsehood of him, and his master put him into prison. *Q.* Did God forsake Joseph in prison? *A.* No; he was with him, and the keeper of the prison put all the other prisoners under Joseph's care. *Q.* Were any particular prisoners brought in while Joseph was in prison? *A.* Yes, Pharaoh's chief butler and baker. *Q.* What is a butler? *A.* A man servant who takes care of the wine and other things, and an upper servant; and the baker makes the bread for the family. *Q.* Did any thing particular take place while they were in prison? *A.* Yes, the butler and baker both dreamed a dream in one night. *Q.* Who explained the dreams? *A.* Joseph, and he explained them right; the butler was restored to his place, but the baker was

hanged. *Q.* Did Joseph ask the chief butler any thing? *A.* Yes, he said think of me when it shall be well with thee, and make mention of me unto Pharaoh. *Q.* Did the chief butler remember Joseph? *A.* No, he forgot him, as is too often the case; but we hope never to forget our friends. *Q.* How long was it before the chief butler spoke of Joseph to Pharaoh? *A.* Two years. *Q.* What caused him to remember? *A.* Because Pharaoh dreamed a dream, and none of his own people could explain it. *Q.* What took place next? *A.* The chief butler told Pharaoh of Joseph, and Pharaoh sent for Joseph, and Joseph explained both his dreams. *Q.* Did Pharaoh believe Joseph? *A.* Yes, and he was so pleased that he gave Joseph a ring, and a gold chain about his neck, and made him ruler over all the other servants. *Q.* How did Joseph first see his brothers? *A.* There was a famine in the land, and Joseph's father sent his brothers to buy corn, and when they saw him they did not know him. *Q.* What does a famine mean? *A.* When there was nothing for the people to eat. *Q.* Did Joseph make himself known to his brethren? *A.* Yes, after sometime, and then he made a feast for them. *Q.* After Joseph had made himself known to his brethren what did he do? *A.* He sent for his father and told his brothers to say, thus saith thy son Joseph, God hath made me lord over all Egypt, come down unto me directly. *Q.* What did Joseph's brothers say when they came to their father? *A.* They said thy son Joseph is yet alive, and he is governor over all the land of Egypt; and Jacob's heart fainted, for he could not believe them at first. *Q.* Did he believe them at last? *A.* Yes, when he saw the wagons which Joseph had sent to carry him, the spirit of Jacob their father revived. *Q.* Did Jacob consent to go? *A.* Yes; he said it is enough, Joseph my son is yet alive, I will go and see him before I die. *Q.* If we want any more information about Joseph and his brethren, where can we find it? *A.* In the 37th chapter of Genesis, and many of the following chapters.

In this way the teacher may go on, until he has placed before the children the leading facts in the history of Joseph, taking care, if possible, that the children understand every term used; and the teacher will find the children instructed and pleased, and himself none the worse for the exercise. He may also ask them the chapter, verse, name of the book, &c.

TWENTIETH ANNUAL REPORT OF THE TRUSTEES OF THE FREE-SCHOOL SOCIETY OF NEW-YORK.

The Trustees of the Free-School Society of New-York, in conformity with the requisitions of their charter present the following Annual Report:

The whole number of scholars now on the registers of the several schools is four thousand and fifty nine, and the schedule annexed will exhibit the relative numbers belonging to each.

The schools have been visited during the year, weekly and semi-weekly, by committees appointed for the purpose, in the manner heretofore uniformly practised. One of these visits, viz. on Monday afternoon, being for the special purpose of receiving applications for the admission of scholars.

At the annual examinations in the month of October, the members of the board were gratified by the appearance of order and propriety reigning in the schools, the cleanliness and neatness of the rooms, and the evident progress made by the children in their studies. As it has always been desirable with the board to satisfy the public of the utility of instruction on the Lancasterian plan, the members of the Corporation, and many of our fellow citizens, were invited to assist at these examinations, a number of whom attended.

On the arrival on our shores of the distinguished veteran and Patriot, to whom our country is, in a political point of view, so much indebted, an invitation was given him to visit one of the schools, which he readily accepted; and accompanied by a number of our fellow citizens, visited school No. 3, and afterwards attended an exhibition of about three thousand scholars in the Park. This illustrious individual expressed himself particularly gratified by the interesting spectacle presented to him; and the trustees are persuaded that every member of the institution will feel pleasure in learning that, by a unanimous vote of the board, *General La Fayette* was elected a member of the society.

In the course of the year, two of the teachers in our employment have been engaged by the Principals of the High School to assist in the management of that establishment: one of these was an *elève* of the Free School society; a charity scholar, advanced through all the grades of monitorial instruction and promotion, until he became himself one of the ablest, and most valued teachers we have had occasion to employ.

The Society continues indebted for a loan of $ 16,000; for a diminution of which, some effort should be made during the coming year.

An abstract of the treasurer's accounts shows the whole expenses of the past year to have been $ 10,266 07, which, taking into view the number of poor children, whose instruction is thus provided for, must afford a striking illustration of the great economy to which this system may be carried.

The last year's report, exhibited in detail the reasons, which in the estimation of the trustees, rendered it so desirable to procure an alteration of the State Law, in respect to the distribution of the

School Fund. The exertions made for the attainment of this object, resulted in an act of the Legislature, passed at the late Fall Session, by which the distribution of that portion of the Common School Fund, which is drawn by the city of New-York, is placed at the discretion of the common council. It then became incumbent on the trustees to make the same representation to this body, which had been previously made before the State legislature. The subject was referred by the Common Council to the law committee of that board, by whom both parties were admitted to a hearing, at a meeting in which the points at issue were very fully discussed.

The argument on the question of constitutionality and expediency, was ably conducted on the part of those opposed to the old mode of distribution, by Peter A. Jay, Ira Clisbee, and Hiram Ketchum, Esquires. The committee of the Corporation reported in full on the subject, and expressed an opinion decidedly adverse to the unconstitutional practice heretofore allowed, of admitting several Church establishments in the city, to a participation of the fund for the benefit of schools, under their particular directions.

The Committee further reported an ordinance, which was adopted by the Common Council with great unanimity, directing the distribution of the fund to be made to the Free School Society of New-York, the Mechanics' Society, the Orphan Asylum Society, and the Trustees of the African Free School. The ordinance contains several provisions highly favorable to the Free School Society, and the Trustees feel persuaded that important advantages will result from its adoption.

In making these representations to the Common Council on the appropriation of the School Fund, the Trustees were induced to suggest a plan for a general change in the system of public school instruction. The principal features of this plan were, that the style of the Free School Society should be changed to that of a Public School Society—that the number of trustees should be augmented —that the Mayor and Recorder of the City should be ex officio members of the board—that the whole of the real estate of the Society should be vested under certain restrictions in the Common Council; and, on the other hand, that the whole of the School Fund drawn by the City, should be at the disposal of the Society, and that the Charter of the Society should be so altered as to allow of converting all or any of the Free Schools attached to the institution, into low priced pay schools, requiring from the parents or friends of each scholar the pay of 25 or 50 cents per quarter; reserving, however, to the Trustees the power to remit the charge in their discretion. As this change, however, required an act of the Legislature, which could not be procured during the pending session of that body, the Law Committee, to whom the subject was

referred, together with that of the distribution of the School Fund, deemed it expedient to delay the consideration of it for the present. The ideas suggested, met, nevertheless, with the approbation of many of the members of the Corporation, and the Trustees believe the advantages to be derived from the establishment of schools of this description, sufficiently important to merit the future attention of the Society.

Much, we rejoice to say, has been effected in this metropolis within a few years, in providing for the instruction of our youth, but much still remains to be done. Our free schools have conferred the blessings of education upon a large number of the children of the poor; but still it is to be lamented that a description of public school is wanting amongst us, where the rich and the poor may meet together; where the wall of partition, which seems now to be raised between them, may be removed; where kindlier feelings between the children of these respective classes may be begotten; where the indigent may be excited to emulate the cleanliness, decorum, and mental improvement of those in better circumstances; and where the children of our wealthier citizens will have an opportunity of witnessing and sympathising, more than they now do, in the wants and privations of their fellows of the same age. It is believed that the establishment of schools of this kind would conduce, more than any other measure, to a moral elevation of the character of the mass of our population. The improved condition of the people of the cities and seaports of New England, is thought in a great measure due to the practice of assembling children of all classes in the same public schools, where the child of the poorest citizen feels on a perfect equality with his richer 'classmate'; where both insensibly forget the distinction which difference of circumstances would otherwise have drawn between them, and where all feel the conscious dignity of receiving their instruction as a *right*, to which, as the children of citizens they are entitled, and which cannot be denied them.

An improvement of this kind, the trustees are aware, cannot be suddenly introduced; but they think that many of the benefits to be derived from the change, might be procured by the introduction of low priced pay schools, conducted on the Lancasterian plan, but open to the children of all ranks of citizens; and they suggest to the Society the expediency of authorising the board to petition for such an alteration of the charter, as will admit of the establishment of schools of this description, should it be hereafter deemed expedient.

By order and in behalf of the Trustees,

LEONARD BLEECKER, *Vice President.*

LINDLEY MURRAY, *Secretary.*

New-York, April 29, 182[illegible].

The following are the locations and sizes of the several schools.

No 1, in Chatham-st.	Lloyd D. Windsor,	Teacher,	420 boys and girls.
No. 2, in Henry-st.	Henry Hart,	do.	462 boys.
	Rebecca Leggett,	do.	348 girls.
No. 3, in Hudson-st.	Benjamin Hart,	do.	547 boys.
	Catharine R. Dean,	do.	302 girls.
No. 4, in Rivington-st.	E. Wheaton,	do.	538 boys.
	Caroline B. Knapp,	do.	383 girls.
No. 5, in Mott-st.	Joseph Belden,	do.	476 boys.
	Maria M. Field,	do.	264 girls.
No. 6, Bellevue,	Charles Belden,	do.	319 boys and girls.
			4059

Lancasterian Manuals and Lessons, and Scripture Lessons, published by the Society, for the use of Schools, may be had on application to the Secretary.

The following are the Officers of the Free School Society.

De Witt Clinton, President; Leonard Bleecker, Vice President; George T. Trimble, Treasurer; Lindley Murray, Secretary.

Establishment of Public Schools in the City of New-York.

[The alteration mentioned on the preceding page, has, with the sanction of the legislature of the State been effected; and the title of Free School Society has been altered to that of Public School Society. The interesting particulars connected with this change we copy from a pamphlet entitled as above.]

THE trustees of the Free School Society of the city of New York, having presented to the Legislature a memorial in relation to a proposed change of the present system of Free or Charity Schools into Public or General Schools, would take the liberty of urging upon the attention of the members some facts and arguments in explanation and support of the measure.

The city of New York, as appears by the census just finished, contains, (exclusive of strangers,) 168,932 souls. In a population of such magnitude, and still multiplying with a rapidity of progression that seems to outstrip all ordinary calculation, the subject of *Elementary Education*, particularly when taken in connection with the form of our republican institutions, is one of intense interest, and has frequently engaged the deliberations, not only of the Free School Society, but of the Common Council of the city, and we may add of the legislature of the State. But although improvements, resulting partly from these deliberations and partly from individual reflection and benevolence, have from time to time been suggested and adopted, there is still room for further amendment.

The *Common School Fund*, in its distribution in the metropolis (unlike every other part of the state) is confined, by the existing laws, to such only as are 'the proper objects of a *gratuitous* education;' thus excluding from its benefits those who are taxed for its increase, and making of its recipients a *separate community*, publicly professing, and permanently recording the story of their own and their parent's indigence. These are evils which it is proposed to remedy.

1st. By opening the public schools to all, without distinction of sect or circumstances, and

2d. In order to meet the increased demand for tuition, and to elevate the feelings and ensure a more punctual attendance of the pupils, it is proposed to require small tuition fees, graduated with a due regard to the ability of the applicants, and not exceeding in any case one dollar per quarter; with a proviso that no child shall ever be rejected on the ground of inability to make the payment.

The business of elementary instruction is at present conducted, in the city of New York, in two *distinct classes* of seminaries—first the Free and other public Charity Schools, and secondly the minor or private pay schools. Of the three or four hundred of the latter description, which have been ascertained to be in operation in the city, a large proportion are kept in small rooms, without sufficient light or ventilation, or a due regard to cleanliness, requisites so essential to the health and comfort of youth. And in numerous instances, these minor pay schools are taught by persons without the necessary qualifications for the discharge of their important trusts, and in some instances even of doubtful morals. On such teachers is the hard earned money of our industrious citizens too often wasted, and what is of still greater consequence, in such schools is the invaluable time of their offspring irretrievably lost. The great variety of plans, also, pursued in the different schools, and the various and dissimilar books used in them, increase expense, and retard the progress of the children in case of their removal from one school to another. It needs no argument to show that these children would be *better*, as well as more *cheaply* educated in large spacious public schools, conducted on the monitorial or Lancasterian principle, and superintended by a board of trustees specially chosen for the purpose, and who are influenced by motives of benevolence and public good, and qualified to undertake this important charge. In addition to this consideration, the parents, who are taxed to support the Free Schools, complain and justly complain that they are denied the benefit of an institution, to which they are compelled by law to contribute, and are thus placed on a footing *different from that of the citizens of every other county in the state.*

In consequence of the very indifferent condition of the great body of the minor pay schools, applications have frequently been made to the trustees for admission into the Lancasterian Free Schools, accompanied with an offer to pay for the tuition. These applications the trustees, as the law now stands, were compelled to reject.

Many children are but badly educated, because their parents are too poor to send them to good pay schools, and too proud to send them to charity schools. The term *charity scholar* which must remain as long as the present division of the schools is kept up, is usually associated in the minds of the people with the idea of reproach.

There is, in persons in the humblest walks of life, a feeling of self-respect and laudable pride, which ought rather to be fostered than repressed. It is the surest guarantee against pauperism and its attendant evils.

The number of children in the city, between the ages of five and fifteen, is supposed to be about 30,000, of whom about 13,000 are educated in the pay schools, 10,000 in the free and other charity schools: the remaining 7,000 from various causes, and partly from the feeling already alluded to, are wholly uneducated.

By the twentieth annual report of the British and Foreign School Society, (1825) it appears that there are in great Britain two hundred and forty-one schools for the poor and laboring classes, in which a payment is required for tuition of from 1*d* to 4*d* sterling per week, nearly equal to from one to four dollars annually for each scholar. And in reference to a school in London, the report states that 3*d* sterling per week was paid by each scholar, and in this way 'the important sum of £664,143 sterling was received from the parents, in such *very trifling* sums as scarcely to be felt by even the poorest of them. In this circumstance the committee greatly rejoice, not only on account of the benefit which the funds of the institution have derived from this assistance, but chiefly because it proves the growing estimation in which education is held by the laboring classes in society, and the increasing elevation of their minds, and the consequent respectability of their characters; indeed it has been generally found that those children who have been educated in this establishment *gratuitously*, have been most *defective* in their attendance, and their advantages *less* prized by themselves and their parents.'

And here the committee would avail themselves of some valuable testimony on this subject, contained in one of the reports of *the society for promoting the education of the poor of Ireland;* a society which we are informed, in their *twelfth* annual report, have under their care and afford assistance to 1490 schools, in which are in-

structed more than 100,000 children, and whose last annual expenditure was £32,632, 15, 5*d* sterling, of which, £2,000 sterling was voted by parliament. In some of the schools under their charge, they have tried the experiment of receiving *one penny weekly*, amounting to fifty-two pence annually, from each child in attendance. It is not intimated that there was *ever any difficulty in collecting that amount;* (except in one school.) And from an experience of the beneficial results of this requisition, the society recommend to the schools under their charge, that in *all cases* the children should be required to pay a *small sum* weekly; by such means, they observe, the funds of the school will be augmented, the poor will set a *higher value* on the instruction imparted to them, than they probably would, if they were entirely indebted to the bounty of others for their education; and a habit of looking to their own exertions for their support, will be cherished in their minds, which will prove of essential value to them throughout life. In another report, the practice is *again* strongly recommended, and the committee of the society observe; a 'greater value appears to be set upon the instruction received, when a payment, though small, is required. It induces parents to look more closely to the regular attendance of their children; and it meets, besides, a feeling not uncommon in this country, (Ireland,) which ought perhaps to be rather encouraged than repressed—of repugnance to receiving education, as a mere charitable boon, instead of obtaining it through the means afforded by the exertion of honest industry.'

In another report of the British and Foreign School Society, the Committee observe : 'Experience has proved that the most effectual method of supporting local schools, is the demand, in addition to the aid of the benevolent, of a *small weekly sum from each scholar*, and the desire for instruction on the part of the industrious poor, is generally so great, that in most cases nothing more is needed for the establishment of a school, than the co-operation and activity of a few zealous persons, whose exertions can scarcely fail of being crowned with success.' It is also stated in the appendix to the report, that 'In a populous part of Lambeth, (a part of London,) a school for the poor was erected on the plan of the British and Foreign School Society, intended to hold 300 children; the building cost more than *L*1000.—Subscriptions, although liberal, fell greatly short, and the trustees found themselves getting behind every year. The prospect being so dark, it was thought expedient to make the *parents of the children pay somewhat toward the education of them*, and ultimately *two pence per week* was demanded. Some fear arose lest the attendance would be less; to obviate this, the master was directed not to reject any child whose parents were unable to pay, but only *one* such circumstance occurred. The ex-

periment gave rise to an unexpected circumstance, too important to be overlooked, and promising a vast extension of the benefit of schools; *for the poor are so well pleased with the new plan*, that the *attendance* has been increased, and the regularity of the attendance much improved. They feel a spirit of independence excited by paying for their children, which deserves encouragement, and a hope is held out that the benevolent views of the friends to the education of the poor, may meet a strong aid in the means thus afforded.'

In another school at Worcester, the report mentions that 'about two years ago the state of the finances induced the committee to try the experiment of making it a *pay school*, and each child was charged 2*d* sterling per week. The plan has answered beyond expectation; there has not only been an increase in the number of scholars, but a more punctual attendance *without any disapprobation* on the part of the parents.'

Thus we have seen the results of this experiment in England and Ireland. The Trustees would add another consideration on this subject. If the parents who now send their children to the Free Schools, were in the habit of making some returns for the instruction furnished them, it would create a feeling of respect and gratitude, on the part of children towards their parents; they would feel under greater obligations, to them, and thus be furnished with additional motives to the observance of that precept of the moral law, which lies at the foundation of social order and good government—'Honour thy Father and thy Mother.'

In addition to the preceding evidence from foreign countries, the Trustees are happy to have it in their power to lay before the Board the testimony of some experience on the subject of inquiry, in our own city.

The Female Association did for some time receive pay, to the amount of one and two cents per week, from each of their scholars. They found *no difficulty* in collecting this amount, nor was the *attendance* on their schools diminished, although at the same time, the schools under the care of this board were open for the instruction of their scholars, *free* of expense. The association discontinued receiving pay from the fear that they would otherwise debar themselves from participating in the Common School Fund.

The African School at one time received from the children in attendance, *an amount almost sufficient to pay the salary of the teacher*; but which charge, for the reason just stated, is not at present made.

Since the ordinance of the Common Council of this city deprived all sectarian Charity Schools from participating in the common School Fund, one of these Free schools has been converted into a Pay school; and of the eighty-five girls who now attend that school, and pay from *one dollar to five dollars per quarter*, eighty-three were formerly there educated *gratuitously*.

The following is an extract from a Report of a Committee of the Common Council of the city of New-York.

'In proof of the practicability of the plan now suggested, your committee have ascertained, that in Great Britain, a similar method has been attended with success, as will be seen in the Eighteenth Report of the British and Foreign School Society. And your committee have been furnished with a letter from Mr. Charles R. Webster, dated Albany, 25th of April, 1825, to Mr. Isaac Collins of our city, from which they have his permission to make the following extracts.

'I have examined the Minute Book of the Albany Lancaster School, in relation to the admission of *Pay Scholars*. We have but a single By-Law on the subject, which requires, that all children on admittance into the school, *shall pay in advance*, from twenty-five cents, to one dollar and twenty-five cents per quarter, according to the ability of their parents or guardians, *always excepting the children of such poor persons as are unable to pay, and those of this class, have in all cases a preference, and are never refused on any account whatever.*

'We have never met with any difficulty in the school, in respect to the scholars paying, or not paying; each child has equal rights and privileges; and though the government of the school requires order and submission, it is otherwise a perfect democracy. Each child rises or falls from his own merit or demerit, and no regard is ever paid to the standing of the parent or guardian. We have never found any difficulty on this subject.'

One of the effects of breaking down the distinction between charity and pay scholars, is forcibly expressed in the following extract from a speech delivered by the celebrated Mr. Brougham, at a public dinner in Edinburgh.

'But what I have to say of the High School of Edinburgh, and say as the ground of the preference I give it over others, and even over another academy lately established in this city, on what is said to be a more improved principle—what I say is this—that such a school is altogether invaluable in a free state—in a state having higher objects in view by the education of its youth than a mere knowledge of the Latin and Greek languages, and the study of prosody. That in a state like this, higher objects should be kept in view, there can be no doubt, though I confess I have passed much of my time in these studies myself. Yet a school like the old High School of Edinburgh, is invaluable, and for what is it so? It is because men of the highest and lowest rank in society, send their children to be educated together.. The oldest friend I have in the world, your worthy Vice President, and myself, were at the High

School of Edinburgh together, and in the same class along with others who still possess our friendship, and some of them in a rank of life still higher than his. One of them was a nobleman, who is now in the House of Peers; and some of them were sons of shopkeepers in the lowest part of the Cowgate of Edinburgh—shops of the most inferior description—and one or two of them were the sons of menial servants in the town. There they were, sitting side by side, giving and taking places from each other, without the slightest impression on the part of my noble friends of any superiority on their parts to the other boys, or any ideas of inferiority on the part of the other boys to them; and this is my reason for preferring the Old High School of Edinburgh to other, and what may be termed more patrician schools, however well regulated or conducted.'

In the same connection may properly be presented an extract from an eloquent speech of Judge Story, in the Massachusetts Convention.

'In our country,' says he, 'the highest man is not *above* the people; the humblest is not *below* the people. If the rich may be said to have additional protection, they have not additional power—nor does wealth here form a permanent distinction of families. Those who are wealthy to-day, pass to the tomb, and their children divide their estates. Property thus is divided quite as fast as it accumulates. No family can without its own exertions, stand erect for a long time, under our statute of descents and distributions, the only true and legitimate agrarian law. It silently and quietly dissolves the mass heaped up by the toil and diligence of a long life of enterprise and industry. Property is continually changing like waves of the sea. One wave rises, and is soon swallowed up in the vast abyss, and seen no more. Another rises, and having reached its destined limits, falls gently away, and is succeeded by yet another, which, in its turn, breaks and dies gently on the shore. The richest man amongst us may be brought down to the humblest level, and the child, with scarcely clothes to cover his nakedness, may rise to the highest office in our government; and the poor man, while he rocks his infant on his knees, may justly indulge the consolation, that if he possesses talent and virtue, there is no office beyond the reach of his honorable ambition.'

[The following documents compose the Appendix to the pamphlet which we copy.]

To the Honorable the Legislature of the State of New-York.

The Memorial of the Free School Society of New-York respectfully represents:—

That the Free Schools of the City of New-York continue to prosper under the fostering care of the public authorities. But your memorialists, believing that the usefulness of these establishments may be greatly increased, are desirous of obtaining for this purpose certain alterations in the Charter of the Free School Society.

By the present law, no child can be instructed in the free schools except he or she be the proper object of a gratuitous education. The design of this provision is, no doubt, that the education of all poor children in the city of New-York should be provided for out of the common bounty of the State. This object is admitted to be one of the first importance, and ought never to be abandoned. But the restriction on the trustees abovementioned is not, it is believed, necessary to the accomplishment of this intention, and it is found productive of a good deal of practical inconvenience, at the same time that it operates as a limitation to the usefulness of the Free School Society.

To ascertain with precision the pecuniary abilities of those who apply for the admission of their children to the schools, always presents a difficult, and is not unfrequently a delicate, subject of inquiry. There are doubtless many parents in this city who are not able to pay any thing for their children's education; and these children, if educated at all, must be instructed entirely at the public expense. But close, and it is believed accurate observation, has satisfied your memorialists, that there are a greater number of parents who, though they would not be able to pay the price of tuition demanded at any pay school in the city, are yet able to make a small contribution towards their children's education. These children may, under the existing law, be considered proper objects of gratuitous instruction, though they cannot be classed among the most indigent. There is also another class of citizens of no inconsiderable amount, who are unable to send their children to pay schools, and unwilling to have them ranked among paupers by sending them to free schools; such children are allowed to grow up without education.

Now it must be obvious that if any parent is willing to have his children educated, he is bound to contribute all in his power towards such education, although the contribution should not be sufficient of itself to accomplish the desired object; such contributions, however small, will naturally cause parents to take more interest in the literary progress of their children, and by leading them to exact greater punctuality in their attendance to their studies, and at school, produce a practical benefit to the children themselves.

The aversion manifested by many parents to sending their children to free schools, may be considered as the offspring of a feel-

ing of independence which ought to be encouraged rather than discountenanced.

To enable the Trustees of the Free School Society to receive such small contributions as those parents who send children to their schools, have the ability to render, and to accommodate those who, from a commendable feeling of pride, would avoid being considered pensioners upon the public bounty, your memorialists request your honorable body so to amend the act incorporating said Society, as to allow the Trustees, without prejudicing their right to draw from the Common School fund disbursed in the county of New-York, to demand and receive for every child instructed in their schools, a compensation for tuition, not exceeding one dollar per quarter; provided that the Trustees may at all times have power to remit this demand, and that they shall not at any time refuse to educate any child on account of the inability of his parents or guardian to make the required compensation: but shall at all times receive and educate such children; and also to alter the title of the Society from that of the Free School Society of New-York, to that of 'The Public School Society of New-York.' Your memorialists would also request that the number of Trustees of said Free School Society be increased from thirty-six to fifty or more. This alteration is rendered desirable on account of the increased duties of the Board. And to make the right of membership of said Society more accessible to every citizen, your memorialists request a further alteration, allowing a contribution of ten dollars, instead of twenty-five dollars, as heretofore, to constitute any person a member for life.

Your memorialists would further petition, that, inasmuch as their real estate has become very valuable, and as they are extremely desirous the public should have all possible security that this property shall for ever be appropriated to the purposes of education, they may be authorised by law to vest the fee simple of their real estate in the corporation of the city of New-York, and to receive from them in return a lease of said property to be used and appropriated to the sole purpose of education for ever.

Your memorialists have prepared the draft of a bill embracing in detail the proposed amendments, and some alterations of minor importance, which they respectfully solicit may be passed into a law.

Witness the Seal of said Society, the 2d day of December 1825.

LEONARD BLEECKER, *Vice President.*

LINDLEY MURRAY, *Secretary.*

In behalf of the Commissioners of School Money of the city and county of New-York, we are authorised to certify their approbation of the foregoing Memorial, relative to certain alterations in

the Charter of the Free School Society in said city, and of the details connected with the same, as stated in the accompanying draft of a bill to be presented to the Legislature with the memorial.

JACOB DRAKE, *Chairman*,

H. KETCHUM, *Secretary Pro Tem.*

New-York Dec. 2, 1825.

In Common Council, December 5, 1825.

The Committee on Laws have the satisfaction to lay before the Common Council the Memorial of the Free School Society of New-York to the Legislature of this State, with a draft of a bill for the establishment of Public Schools in this city. These papers have been submitted to the Commissioners of the Common School Fund; and as your committee are informed, have received the unanimous sanction of each of these respectable bodies.

By the establishment of Public Schools, the great and interesting subject of Education, and its intimate relation to, and connection with, the happiness and prosperity of the rising generation, will be brought before the community at large, and made an object of general solicitude and patronage. The children also, those inestimable objects of individual attachment and concern, and who are to be the future men and women of our country, will be taken in a practical and efficient sense under the public guardianship while at school, and thus be made the recipients of all that parental affection and care can bestow on the one hand, and of the best public regard on the other, and will be simultaneously instructed in their private and public duties.

Many of the evils that now exist in the business of instruction, will be obviated, and the opposite advantages substituted in their place, by the employment, in Public Schools, of experienced well-informed, and liberal minded teachers, who alone can expect to be called into their service, and who, in return for their capacity, active exertions, and real public usefulness, may entertain the assurance of just and ample remuneration. Men of this description, having talents of the highest order, with minds expanded and enlarged by useful science and extensive observation, and whose habits correspond with the dignity and importance of their profession, and who shall enter with zeal, and a determination to become useful, in the performance of their duties, will cause the general business of instruction, to become what it ought to be, a pleasant employment to themselves, and every way agreeable and profitable to their pupils.

Under the operation of such establishments, the invaluable object of a plain, elementary, and virtuous education will be rendered attainable by each individual of the rising generation, in this city,

and every parent will be left without excuse if it is not received in the utmost amplitude and copiousness to which it may be extended, and of which the minds of his children are capable. And the further anticipation may be entertained, that the immense population which this city is destined to contain, will experience the meliorating and benignant effects of early, systematic, and useful instruction, in a ratio proportioned to its increasing numbers and wants.

In the hope that effects like these may be developed, by means of the improvement now in view, and in favor of which the Board has already expressed its opinion in the most plain and unequivocal form, on a previous Report of this committee, your Committee beg leave respectfully to recommend the following Resolution:—

Resolved—That the Memorial to the Legislature of this State, and the draft of a bill prepared by the Trustees of the Free School Society, and sanctioned by the Commissioners of the Common School Fund, for the establishment of Public or Common Schools in this city, be, and the same are, hereby approved by this Board,

Respectfully submitted,

(Signed) SAMUEL COWDREY,
ELISHA W. KING,
THOMAS BOLTON.

In Common Council Dec. 5, 1825.

The foregoing Memorial having been read, it was resolved, that the Common Council approve of the same, and that his honor the Mayor cause the same to be executed in the recess of the Board.

By the Common Council,

WILLIAM PAULDING, *Mayor*.

J. MORTON, *Clerk*.

An Act in relation to the Free School Society of New-York.

WHEREAS, the Trustees of said Society have presented to the Legislature a Memorial requesting certain alterations in their Act of Incorporation,

THEREFORE, *Be it enacted* by the People of the State of New-York, represented in Senate and Assembly—That the said Society shall hereafter be known by the name of The Public School Society of New-York.

2. *And be it further enacted*, That it shall be the duty of said Society to provide, so far as their means may extend, for the education of all children in the city of New-York, not otherwise provided for, whether such children be or be not the proper object of gratuitous education, and without regard to the religious sect or denomination to which such children or their parents may belong.

3. *And be it further enacted*, That it shall be lawful for the Trus-

tees to require of the pupils received into the schools under their charge, a moderate compensation, not exceeding one dollar each per quarter, to be applied to the erection of school houses, the payment of the teachers' salaries, and to the defraying of such other expenses as may be incident to the education of children. *Provided*, That such payment, or compensation, may be remitted by the Trustees in all cases in which they shall deem it proper to do so—and *Provided further*, That no child shall be denied the benefits of the said Institution, merely on the ground of inability to pay for the same, but shall at all times be freely received and educated by the said Trustees.

4. *And be it further enacted*, That nothing in this act contained shall be construed to deprive the said Society of any revenues, or of any rights to which they are now, or if this act had not been passed, would have been by law entitled; and that the receipt of small payments from the scholars shall not preclude the Trustees from drawing from the Common School Fund for all children educated by them.

5. *And be it further enacted*, That the Trustees shall have power from time to time to establish in the said city, such additional schools as they may deem expedient.

6. *And be it further enacted*, That any person paying to the Treasurer of said Society, for the use of the Society, the sum of ten dollars, shall become a member thereof for life.

7. *And be it further enacted*, That the Annual Meetings of the said Society shall hereafter be held on the second Monday in May in each year.

8. *And be it further enacted*, That the number of Trustees to be chosen by the Society at and after the next annual meeting, shall be increased to fifty—who at any legal meeting of the Board may add to their number, but so as not in the whole to exceed one hundred, exclusive of the Mayor and Recorder of the city, who are hereby declared to be ex-officio members of the Board of Trustees.

9. *And be it further enacted*, That the stated meetings of the Board shall be held quarterly, that is to say, on the first Fridays of February, May, August, and November, in each year—*Provided* That an extra stated meeting shall be held on the Friday next following the annual meeting in each year, for the purpose of organising the new Board, and transacting any other necessary business.

10. *And be it further enacted*, That one fourth of the whole number of Trustees for the time being, shall constitute a quorum for the transaction of business at any legal meeting of the Board.

11. *And be it further enacted*, That the said Society is hereby authorised, so far as any authorisation from the Legislature may be deemed necessary, to convey their school edifices and other real

estate to the Mayor, Aldermen, and Commonalty of the city of New-York, taking back from said corporation a perpetual lease thereof upon condition that the same shall be exclusively applied to the purposes of education, and upon such other terms and conditions, and in such form as shall be agreed upon between the parties.

UNIVERSITY OF GEORGIA.

[A friend to education has favored us with the following account, which derives a part of its interest from the circumstance of its being, as far as we know, the only printed statement of the kind that has hitherto been presented to the public. In the state policy and procedure connected with the University of Georgia, there are several peculiar and interesting circumstances, which seem to deserve attention. One of these is the fact that the preparatory school of that institution is *free*, and the other that the Faculty of the University is so composed as to embrace the interests of the county academies, which are designed for the same purposes as the preparatory school. Both of these circumstances seem auspicious to the preparatory institutions, not less than to the University itself.]

As early as the year 1784, when the blessings of peace and independence began to be felt by the citizens of Georgia, impressed with a sense of the importance of providing the means of sound and useful education within their own state, they turned their attention to this interesting object. In that year, the Legislature of Georgia, with a discretion and liberality truly laudable, appropriated forty thousand acres of land on the Northwestern limits of the state, for the purpose of endowing and establishing a University. In 1785 they granted a Charter to the Institution and appointed a Board of Trustees, to superintend the interests of the University, giving them no power to sell the lands entrusted to their care; but clothing them with discretionary authority to use and dispose of them *in any other manner* for the best interests of the Infant Seminary. The donation was situated in the heart of a very extensive tract of unappropriated lands belonging to the state, on its northwestern frontier; the settling of which was long prevented by the constant dread of savage incursions, to which it was frequently, and sometimes fatally subjected. When the fear of Indian barbarity began to subside, the population of the state to diffuse itself over this unoccupied region, and emigrants and speculators, to visit it from motives of speculation and emolument, the public lands, a full

and perfect title to which could be obtained at once, presented a more interesting and inviting object to their enterprise or avarice, than the College-property, subject to such conditions as had been prescribed by the Trustees of the University, to suit the necessities and promote the interests of the Institution. Consequently very little of the College demesne appeared likely to be taken on tenancy, and the endowment long remained unproductive and inactive. As the Institution received no other donation, and the Corporation relied on the lands as their only resource, fifteen years elapsed before any effort could be prudently made to realise the designs and benefits of the Charter.

In November, 1798, Josiah Meigs Esquire, Professor of Mathematics in Yale College, was appointed by the Trustees to be first Professor in the University of Georgia, and to preside until the meeting of the Senatus Academicus. On the 16th of June, 1801, Mr. Meigs was appointed President of the Institution, which office he continued to hold until the 9th August, 1810; at which time he resigned the Presidency and accepted the Professorship of Mathematics, Chemistry, and Natural Philosophy. After remaining a year in this station, he was appointed Surveyor General of the United States, and resigned the Professorship, and left the state.

Immediately after Mr. Meigs' resignation of the Presidency in 1810, the Trustees appointed the Rev. Henry Kollock, D. D. to fill that office; which appointment Dr. Kollock declined to accept.

From that time the office of President continued vacant until the 5th of August 1811, when the Reverend John Brown, D. D. Professor of Logic and Moral Philosophy in the South Carolina College, was elected President, and, in the presence of the Senatus Academicus, was duly inducted into office.

The late war with Great Britain was unfavorable to the prosperity of the Institution. Dr. Brown resigned his office as President, on the 12th November, 1816: when Mr. John R. Golding, who had been Professor of Languages in the College during several years, was appointed President pro tempore.

On the 23d of December following, the Reverend Robert Finley, of New Jersey, was appointed President of the University, which appointment he accepted. In May, 1817, he removed to Georgia, and arrived in Athens, about the close of the month. On the 4th of June, he was regularly installed and took his seat as President of the Board of Trustees, and entered upon the duties of his arduous and responsible station.

The reputation, zeal, and other qualifications of Dr. Finley inspired the friends of the University with sanguine hopes that the period of its depression was now about to terminate; and that under his administration, it would soon attain a degree of prosperity and

usefulness, which had been long desired, but had not as yet been realised. But those hopes were subjected to a distressing disappointment. On the third day of October following, death put a termination to the life and useful labors of Dr. Finley, and to the expectations of the public benefits which would probably have resulted from his vigorous exertions.

On the 21st March, 1818, the Trustees appointed the Reverend Nathan S. S. Beman to the office vacated by the death of Dr. Finley; and, on the 29th June following, Mr. Beman announced to the Board his acceptance. In order to afford an opportunity to repair the President's house and the buildings connected with the Institution, so as to render them respectable and comfortable, it was deemed expedient by the President elect and the Trustees that the exercises of the College should be suspended until the first of January, 1819.

On the 9th November, 1818, Mr Beman addressed a letter to the Board while in session at Milledgeville, informing them that an act of Providence rendered it both inexpedient and impracticable to remove his family to Athens; as his wife was then laboring under a chronic disease, which precluded all hopes of her recovery. (Mr. Beman's fears were realised by her death within three months afterwards.) He therefore thought it his duty to resign the office which he had accepted.

Before the Board adjourned, they nominated the Reverend Ebenezer Porter, D. D. of Andover, as President; which appointment he declined to accept, as he signified by a letter dated 19th January, 1819.

[On the first day of March, 1819, the Reverend Moses Waddel D. D. whose reputation as a teacher is so well and extensively known, was unanimously chosen by the Board of Trustees President of the University of Georgia. On the 19th April following, he signified his acceptance, and on the 21st May, took charge of the College consisting at that time of seven students. By the following November, at which time his appointment was unanimously confirmed by the Senatus Academicus, the number of students had increased to nearly eighty. They have since been gradually increasing, so that the present number is one hundred and six; notwithstanding a Senior class respectable in numbers has graduated every year for the last four years.]

In the year 1815, the Legislature authorised a sale of the lands of the University, and directed the proceeds to be vested in Bank stock. Accordingly the lands were sold, and the amount produced enabled the Trustees to vest one hundred thousand dollars in stock of the Bank of the State of Georgia, which yields eight thousand dollars a year. If by any accident or misfortune of the Bank, that

amount is not realised, the State, by a law making permanent provision for the Institution, supplies any deficiency. This sum added to about $ 3500 arising from tuition, constitutes the annual income of the College. Its expenditure is about $ 10,000, including $ 1600 paid to two teachers of a Grammar school attached to the College; which, being made *free*, is usually thronged, and therefore a useful nursery to the college.

The University of Georgia, often known by the name of Franklin College, is in the town of Athens, Clark county, on the western margin of the North Oconee river, on the main route from the city of Augusta to Nashville in Tennessee; distant ninety-four miles from the former. The town of Athens in which it is located contains nearly one hundred families, many of whom have resorted thither for the advantage of educating their children; and are respectable on account of their morals and mental improvement. The situation is elevated and, affording a view of the mountains to the northwest, few places in any country can be more healthy than this has been found to be.

The buildings belonging to the College are

1. A three story house of brick 120 feet long and 45 broad, fronting nearly north and south, containing 24 rooms for the accommodation of students. Each room has a fire-place, two dormitories, and two closets for firewood and water, attached to it.

2. Another brick building four stories high, of the same dimensions as the former, and constructed on the same plan, containing 32 rooms. This building was erected by the liberality of the Legislature in 1822. It is an excellent structure; two of its rooms are allotted for instructers, and two, for recitations.

3. A brick building 40 feet by 32, two stories high. The upper story is divided into two apartments; one, for the philosophical apparatus; the other is used as a room for lecturing, recitations and philosophical experiments. The philosophical apparatus is a very complete one; and there are few phenomena in the several departments of natural philosophy which have not the appropriate instrument for their experimental illustration. A permanent provision, moreover, has been made by the Trustees for the purchase of new instruments, and replacing such as may be injured or lost.

The lower story is used as a chemical laboratory. The chemical apparatus is respectable, and sufficiently ample for the performance of all those experiments which are necessary to illustrate and establish the principles of the science.

4. A chapel 40 feet by 60; a framed building, in which the students attend for morning and evening prayers, public worship is attended on the sabbath and the public Commencements are held on the first Wednesday in August.

5. A dwelling-house for the President, about 50 yards from the College—No. 1.

6. Besides these there are two halls for the accommodation of the two literary societies which are instituted in the College, viz. the Demosthenian and the Phi Kappa. The hall of the former is of brick; the other is a frame building. The interior of each is conveniently constructed and elegantly finished.

The officers of instruction at present are,

A President who instructs the higher classes in Logic, Moral Philosophy, and the Evidences of Christianity. His salary is $2200 per annum.

A Professor of Natural Philosophy and Botany, who also instructs in Rhetoric, Belles-lettres, and Criticism, salary $1400.

A Professor of Mathematics and Astronomy, salary $1400.

A Professor of Chemistry, Mineralogy and the French language, whose salary at present is $1200.

Two tutors who instruct the two lower classes in the Latin and Greek languages, Geography, Antiquities, and other studies preparatory to their admission into the Junior class; each of whom has a salary of $700.

The students are divided in four classes, viz. Senior, Junior, Sophomore and Freshman. The studies of the Freshman year are four books of Xenophon's Cyropœdia, Homer, Horace, Roman Antiquities, Murray's English Grammar, Day's Algebra, Morse's Geography, and Playfair's Geometry.

The studies of the Sophomore year are Homer continued, five books of Livy, French, Algebra continued, Plain Trigonometry and Surveying.

The Junior studies are Belles-lettres and criticism, Spherical Trigonometry, Navigation, Conic sections, Priestley's lectures on History, Natural Philosophy, and Logic, with Cicero de Oratore, and a recitation in the Greek Testament on every Monday morning.

The studies of the Senior class are,

Natural Philosophy and Logic continued, (in which Enfield and Andrews' are the text books) Paley's Moral Philosophy and Evidences of Christianity, Astronomy, Brande's Chemistry, Vattel's Law of Nations, Stewart's Philosophy of the Mind, and such classics as the President may direct, with forensic disputation and original speeches, delivered publicly.

The Laws require declamation from the three lower classes and original composition. On each evening after evening prayers two or more, having been appointed on the preceding day, declaim on the stage, in the college chapel, in presence of the Faculty and their fellow students. On every Wednesday at 2 o'clock eight of

them from these three classes declaim before the President in the chapel; when the necessary remarks are made on their pronunciation, attitude, gesture, and manner of delivery.

The price of tuition is thirty-six dollars per annum, and one dollar annually for the use of the library, payable semi-annually in advance.

Each class recites three times a day, viz. immediately after morning prayers, (to which the students are summoned at sunrise by the ringing of the bell,) at 11 o'clock A. M. and at 4 P. M. The forenoon of Saturday is spent by the two societies in their respective halls, for the purpose of literary improvement. As a generous emulation subsists betwixt them, they are regarded as valuable auxiliaries to the Institution.

A strict regard to moral duties, as well as diligent attention to study, is required of the students by the laws of the University. The punishments to be inflicted for the violation of any law, are entirely addressed to the sense of honor and shame, and proportioned to the nature and aggravation of the offence: they are admonition, private, or public, supension, dismission, or expulsion.

In 1820, the Legislature granted two thousand dollars for the purpose of erecting a frame building to accommodate a school preparatory to admission into college. This seminary is placed under the immediate instruction and care of two tutors, and has been by the Trustees subjected to the superintendence of the President. The tuition in this preparatory academy is without cost to the pupils. The tutors receive each a salary of $800 out of the funds of the University; and as a number are annually prepared in this branch for entering college, it has proved an excellent auxiliary and nursery to the institution. It consists at present of about sixty pupils.

The following are the officers of instruction at this time, 1826, viz.

Moses Waddel, D. D. President. Reverend Alonzo Church, A. M. Professor of Mathematics and Astronomy. Henry Jackson M. D. Professor of Natural Philosophy and Botany. James Jackson, A. M. Professor of Chemistry, Mineralogy and the French language. Ephraim S. Hopping, A. M., Alvin Lathrop, A. B., tutors in college. Moses W. Dobbins, Ebenezer Newton, tutors of the preparatory academy.

The whole number of trustees 17; who, together with the senators of the different counties of the state, constitute the Senatus Academicus. All college laws and the appointments of all officers must be confirmed by this body. Their annual meeting, at which the governor presides, is held at the seat of government on the second Monday in November, during the session of the Legislature.

M. M–A. JULLIEN'S QUESTIONS ON COMPARATIVE EDUCATION.
(See last Number.)

Moral and Religious Education.

66. Is particular attention paid to the developement of the moral faculties, and to religious instruction—whether in the family or at school?

67. How are children taught submission, respect, and obedience, to their parents and their superiors, and how are they induced to love them? Is severity or mildness employed for these purposes? (The exciting of fear is exceedingly injurious to the moral developement of children, to their character, and their mind.)

68. How are they led to goodness, beneficence, humanity?

69. What are the *moral sentiments* which are most carefully cherished in them,—filial piety, fraternal affection, benevolence to mankind, and especially to the unfortunate?

70. What are the moral *habits* with which pains are taken to render children familiar—obedience and docility, the spirit of order, force of character and will, combined with a reflecting submission to the orders of persons of greater age and judgement?

71. Is care taken to surround children constantly with good *examples* which they may be induced to imitate?

72. By what means are children early rendered hardy and courageous?

73. Is it customary to terrify them with stories of witches, ghosts, and other apparitions—or are they taught to put no faith in such ridiculous fables, and to remain alone in the dark without fear?

74. What means are made use of to correct infants subject to anger?

75. What measures are taken to correct those who manifest a certain disposition to cruelty, or to the destruction of things which they know to be useful?

76. How are children inspired with an abhorrence of falsehood, and are they encouraged to speak the truth?

77. How is idleness prevented or corrected, and how are children early habituated to labor, without causing in them a repugnance to it?

78. Do mothers exercise a great influence upon the primary moral education of their children; and how is this influence directed?

79. What difference may be remarked in the proportion of this influence, as exercised in the poor, and in the rich classes?

80. What course is taken in religious instruction? Is this course uniform in all schools, or is it left to the will of each instructer?

81. Are positive and dogmatic lessons employed, (often wearisome and repulsive, by wearing too severe a form)—or familiar conversation adapted to the capacity of infancy, and of which the subjects are drawn from the ordinary circumstances of life, to convey to children the first elements of religion and morality, or of their duties toward God, their parents, themselves, their equals, and their country?

82. In religious instruction is recourse had to teaching and explaining a catechism—to precepts, to dogmas, to ceremonies, to exterior forms; or are means taken to penetrate the mind of children, to lay solid internal foundations for their religious belief, to form conscience, to develope and fortify by the double power of habit and example, the moral character,—true piety, a disposition to benevolence, to toleration, to christian charity?

83. What is the internal *regime* of the primary schools? Is their discipline mild, benevolent, paternal, or harsh and severe?

84. What are the most common faults, and what are the punishments which are used? What moral effect do these punishments appear to produce?

85. How are rewards employed to incite children to good? What is the nature of these rewards, and what is their moral effect?

86. Is regard had in the distribution of these rewards to good conduct more than to progress in study,—and to the continuance of that progress observed during a certain space of time, rather than to a success owing to circumstances which is often fortuitous and momentary, obtained in a particular exercise or in an examination?

87. Are sums of money, medals, exterior marks of distinction awarded? Does the distribution of them take place in a public and formal manner?

88. Is recourse had to emulation* to excite the love of study, and in what manner is it made use of?

89. Have pains been taken to keep emulation from degenerating into rivalry,—and producing in children on the one hand the first sentiments of vanity, pride, and ambition, and on the other painful impressions of discouragement, disgust, and envy?

90. Are measures used to displace emulation by a motive more pure, less dangerous, by the inducement presented, whether to the practice of a virtue, or to the acquisition of additional knowledge,

* The author here refers in a note to the views of M. Feuillet in favor of emulation, as stated in his Memoire crowned by the French Academy, 1800 or 1801; and to those of M. Jean-Baptiste Brun, ex-professor of sciences and belles lettres, who has written forcibly and eloquently against the principle of emulation.

and by the inward satisfaction which the child ought to find in the consciousness of his good conduct, of his powers and his progress, in proportion as he exercises and developes his moral character and his intelligence?

Intellectual Education.

91. How is the first education of the senses and the organs directed from the very cradle? With what objects is care taken to surround infants for the purpose of exercising them to see, to touch, to hear, to think?—What are the first exercises of observation and of language?

92. At what age are children ordinarily taught to read, to write, to count; and what is the method regarded as the most easy?

93. What are the branches of instruction in which children are usually taught at the primary schools?—Are most of these schools confined to reading, writing, and arithmetic; or do they embrace some elementary notions of grammar, of vocal music, of geometrical drawing, of geometry and surveying, of practical mechanics, of the geography and history of their country, of the anatomy of the human body, of practical hygiène, of the natural history of those productions of the earth which are most useful to man?—(The elements of all these sciences,--as essential to every individual, in every condition, and in all the circumstances of life,--ought to form a part in a complete system of primary and common instruction, perfectly adapted to the true wants of man in our present state of civilisation and improvement.)

94. How are lessons given?—to all the children assembled in a body, or to small divisions according to their comparative ability and their progress in intelligence?

95. Is any particular method of instruction adopted which has been simplified and perfected?—To what branches of elementary instruction is it applied?—In what does it consist?

96. Is use made generally in the country or only in certain places of the new method of mutual instruction, received from England, and known by the names of its inventors, Messrs. Bell and Lancaster? In what schools is it used?

97. Is use made of the method of elementary instruction, in arithmetic, practised with success by M. Pestalozzi in his institution,—or of any other method of the same kind, whether in arithmetic or the other branches of instruction.

98. Is use made of the analytic method at once ingenious, instructive, and amusing, of M. l'abbé Gualtier for instruction in grammar, geography, &c?

99. What are the first elementary books which are put into the hands of children?

100. Are children made to learn lessons by heart, and in that case are they made to repeat mechanically what they have learned, or, rather, are they exercised in giving an account of what they have learned and in repeating it?—and is there a desire to fix things themselves in the understanding, rather than words in the memory?

101. What efforts are made to develope, and exercise in children, in a manner imperceptibly progressive, first, the power of *attention*, the primary faculty, and the parent of all the rest; then the faculty of *comparison*; finally that of *reasoning*.

102 How long do the lessons and the classes continue, every day; and for how many months of the year?—How are they arranged by hours in winter and in summer?

103. Between the classes or between the lessons given by the masters, have the children one or two hours personal instruction, in giving account of the lessons they have received?

104. What is the ordinary length of a complete course of the primary schools?

105. What differences may be remarked between the primary schools of the cities and those of country places? Are the last-mentioned frequented in summer as well as in winter? If they are suspended, what remedies are used for the inconveniences resulting from this interruption, which exposes children to lose in one half of the year all the benefit of the lessons which they may have received in the other half?

106. Are there annual vacations?—At what seasons do they take place?—How long do they last?—How do children usually employ this interval of time?

Domestic and Private Education, in its connection with the system of Primary Schools.

107. How far is the education which is commenced and continued by parents, in the family, in harmony or in opposition with the education and the instruction given in the primary and public schools?

108. Do the masters of these schools concert measures with parents for the direction of the infants which are committed to them?

109. On what footing are children placed with their parents, in families,—with their instructers and their companions, in the public schools?

110. Do parents and instructers endeavor to make themselves loved rather than feared?—or are the one mild and kind, whilst the other show themselves harsh and severe?—In this case, what appears to be the effect of the apparent contrast?

Primary and Common Education in its connections with secondary education and with the destination of children.

111. Are efforts made to establish a harmony between the first

and the second stage of education—(primary and secondary schools?)

112. Is the actual organisation of primary and common instruction on a basis sufficiently large, solid, and complete, to provide the children of the poor and of the working classes, with all the elementary knowledge requisite for exercising and developing all their faculties?

113. What becomes generally of the children of poor families, on their leaving the primary schools?—and what means have they to indulge a disposition for cultivating and maturing the first instruction which they have received?

114. What becomes generally of the children of rich families, on their leaving the same schools?

General Considerations.

115. Is the actual manner of bringing up children, till their seventh or ninth year, the same as formerly,—or rather in what consists the difference which may be discerned between the new and the old mode of education?

116. What are the improvements or the changes introduced within ten years in primary and common education?

117. What inconveniences can be pointed out in the system actually followed;—or what are the essential advantages which appear to result from it?

118. Of what improvements does it appear to be susceptible?

119. Are primary schools maintained in large manufactories, in hospitals designed for the reception of children, in corps or regiments;—and how are they organised?

120. What are the best works written, in the particular country, on primary education?—or what are those which parents and teachers are most in the habit of consulting?

PROPOSALS FOR FORMING A SOCIETY OF EDUCATION.

The establishment of a society for any of the numerous objects connected with human improvement, is a thing of so common occurrence, as hardly to call for apology or explanation. In the present state of the public mind with regard to the subject of education, in particular, prefatory discussion seems unnecessary. The conviction appears to be universal that the happines of individuals and of society is dependent, to a great extent, on the information, the discipline, and the habits, which are imparted by physical, intellectual, and moral exercise, regulated by good instruction.—Some of the considerations however which seem most strongly to urge the measure now proposed, are entitled to particular attention.

The progress of improvement in education has not hitherto been duly aided by *combined and concentrated effort*,—by mutual understanding and efficient co-operation. That this advantage is highly desirable needs not to be inculcated on any one who has attentively observed the operations or the progress of the religious and philanthropic institutions of the day. The piety and benevolence of separate individuals might have done much for the happiness of man, but could never have achieved the magnificent result of translating the scriptures into the languages of so many nations, nor that of turning a whole people from the rites of idolatry, or the habits of barbarism. It is matter of regret, that, whilst the zeal of thousands has been made to meet on so many other objects, and push them onward to brilliant success, no such union has hitherto been attempted in the great cause of education. Here and there we have had an excellent school-book, an eminent instructer, a vigilant and faithful school-committee, a distinguished institution, a memorable endowment, or a local arrangement which has justly immortalised its projectors. But there has not been any attempt made to offer to the country at large, the benefits likely to result from an association of men eminent and active in literature, in science, and in public life; from an extensive interchange of views on the part of instructers or from an enlighted and harmonious concurrence in a uniform set of books fitted to become the vehicles of instruction, and rendered as perfect as the united judgement of literary men and of teachers could make them. School-committees have labored industriously, indeed, but from the want of a proper channel of communication, they have not acted in concert. Endowments have, in not a few instances, been conferred with so little judgement as to become disadvantageous rather than beneficial; and town and state policy in regard to education has, though admirable in its temporary results, and its restricted sphere, been so cramped in respect to time and place, as to lose much of its proper influence.

A society such as is proposed, would, in all probability, do away these and similar impediments to the career of improvement, and prove a powerful engine in accelerating the intellectual progress, and elevating the character, of the nation.

1. As *the earliest stages of education* require, from their prospective importance, as well as their natural place, the peculiar attention of parents and teachers, the proposed society would direct its attention to every thing which might seem likely to aid parents in the domestic education of their offspring, or in the establishment of schools for infants.

2. Another object of the society would be to aid *instructers* in the

discharge of their duties. So much has recently been written and so well on this subject, that it seems to require but little discussion here.* Let it suffice to say that every effort would be made, which might seem likely to be of service to teachers, whether by the training of youth with reference to the business of teaching, by instituting lectures on the various branches of education, by suggesting methods of teaching these branches, by using, in a word, every means of imparting a facility in communicating knowledge and in directing the youthful mind; so as to furnish instructers with the best attainable knowledge and the best possible qualifications in the branches which they might wish to teach.

A school or college for teachers, though an excellent and a practicable object, cannot be put into operation in a day, nor by any single act of legislature, nor by the solitary efforts of any individual. If there is a season for every thing under the sun, there must be, in this undertaking, an incipient stage of comparative feebleness and doubt and experiment and hazard, which, however, will no doubt give place to a day of ample success, in an unparalelled amount of private and public good. The only questions are, *Where* shall this undertaking be commenced?—*when*?—and by *whom*?—Should a simultaneous movement to effect this great object be made, as in all probability it will in New-York, in Connecticut, and in Massachusetts, and perhaps in other states,† such a society as is now proposed might contribute valuable services to the measures which might be adopted for this purpose.

The society ought not to restrict its attention to instructers of any order, but should endeavor to embrace the services and the duties of all, from the lowest to the highest in the scale of advancement; and the mutual understanding, and the universal co-operation thus secured in the business of instruction, would probably be one of the greatest advantages resulting from this society.‡

3. An object of vast importance in the formation of a society such as is contemplated, would be the collecting of a *library of useful works on education*. The members of the society would, by means of such assistance, proceed more intelligently and efficiently, in the prosecution of their views; and if the library were made to comprise copies of every accessible school book, American or Euro-

* We refer to the interesting publications of Messrs. Gallaudet and Johnson, and the messages of Governors Clinton and Lincoln, as well as occasional articles in several periodical works, and recent pamphlets on education.

† See the messages of Governors Clinton and Lincoln, and the report of the committee of the Legislature of Connecticut.

‡ See Jullien's Questions on Education in Nos. 7 and 8 of this Journal.

pean, it would furnish its readers with the means of valuable and extensive improvement in their respective branches of instruction. The advantage thus afforded would be equally serviceable to such of the society as might be employed in aiding teachers by lectures or otherwise, and to those teachers themselves.

4. A subject closely connected with the preceding would be *the improvement of school-books*. It is a thing not merely convenient or advantageous to education, and to the character of our national literature, that there should be a uniformity in school-books throughout the country: this subject possesses a political value, which reaches even to the union by which we are constituted a powerful and independent nation. Local peculiarities of sentiment, and undue attachments to local custom, are the results in a great measure, of education. We do not surely lay ourselves open to the imputation of being sanguine, when we venture to say that a national uniformity in plans of instruction, and in school-books, would furnish a bond of common sentiment and feeling, stronger than any that could be produced by any other means, in the season of early life. The precise extent to which this desirable improvement might be carried would, of course, depend, in some degree, on the feelings of individuals, no less than on those of any society. But every rational and proper effort would no doubt be made to render such arrangement agreeable to the views and wishes of instructers, and of the authors of school-books, throughout the United States.

5. In the present early stage of this business it is thought better not to multiply or extend observations, but to leave details for a more matured stage of procedure. A useful guide to *particular regulations* is accessible in Count De Lasteyrie's Nouveau Système d'Education. See that pamphlet, or the translation of part of it, given in the appendix to Dr. Griscom's Mutual Instruction.

Another useful guide will be found in M. M-A. Jullien's Esquisse d'un Ouvrage sur l'Education Comparée &c, mentioned in the last note on the preceding page.

6. The vastly desirable benefit of complete and harmonious co-operation, would require that several, if not all, of the large towns and cities in the United States, should contain *a central committee* for managing the concerns of such a society; as *auxiliaries* to which and modelled on the same plan, professional men and teachers, as well as other persons interested in education, and capable of promoting it, might associate themselves in every town or convenient vicinity. A corresponding member from every such association, and one or more from a central committee, might, with great ease and dispatch, conduct all the business of the proposed society in any one State; and a similar arrangement on the great scale, might

complete the organisation of the society for the United States. The whole affair offers nothing either complicated or troublesome: all that is wanted is a sufficiency of zeal and enterprise to commence and of perseverance to sustain the undertaking.

For an idea of the good likely to be accomplished by a society for the improvement of education, reference may be made to the proceedings of the *French Society of Education*, or to the present condition of the primary schools of Holland, which have attained to that condition through the efforts of a society duly impressed with the value of education, and vigorously devoting themselves to its improvement. The result of that society's labors has been nothing short of an intellectual and moral regeneration in the sphere of its action, accomplished, too, in the brief space of thirty years.

Mention might here be made also of the British and Foreign School Society which has done so much for the dissemination of improved instruction at home and abroad; and which has rendered the benefits of education as accessible to the people of England, as they have been or are to those of Scotland, of New England, or of Holland. We might mention, too, the Infant School Society as an institution which is dispensing the blessings of early instruction and moral refinement, among the youngest class of British population.

The subject of this article is one in which we hope all our readers will feel an interest; and we would take this opportunity of inviting persons who have been revolving this or similar subjects in their minds, to favor us with their thoughts in any form which may suit their own views. We shall be happy to select such communications as may suit for insertion in the pages of the Journal, for the purpose of increasing public interest in a topic so important to national improvement, and of accelerating the formation of such a society as has been proposed.

REVIEWS.

An Address delivered at the Collegiate Institution in Amherst, Massachusetts. By Heman Humphrey, D.D. on occasion of his Inauguration to the Presidency of that Institution, October, 15, 1823. Boston: 1823. pp. 40.

The main subject of this address has lost none of its merits from the length of time which has elapsed since it was delivered. After

suitably noticing the character of his predecessor, and making a very brief but touching allusion to the circumstances under which he was himself called to occupy the place left vacant by the death of President Moore, Dr. Humphrey proceeds to call the attention of his audience to Education as the inspiring theme of an hour's meditation. 'This' says he 'in a free, enlightened and christian state, is confessedly a subject of the highest moment.' And the fact that it must always remain so, stamps a value on every effort to enlighten public opinion on any points that have a bearing, even a remote one, upon any of its interests: on 'every inquiry which relates to the philosophy of the human mind—to the early discipline and cultivation of its noble powers—to the comparative merits and defects of classical books and prevaling systems of instruction—to the advantages accruing from mathematical and other abstruse studies—to the means of educating the children of the poor in our public seminaries—to the present state of science and literature in our country; and to the animating prospects which are opening before us. All these topics and many more, nearly related, present themselves to the enlightened and philanthropic mind, as it looks abroad from some commanding eminence, or ranges at leisure over the wide and busy fields of human improvement.'

Dr. H. divides his subject 'into the three great branches of physical, intellectual, and moral improvement, including all that is requisite to form a sound and healthy body, a vigorous and well-stored mind, and a good heart.' About five pages of the address are devoted to the first of these three divisions, and they eloquently portray the advantages of an early, faithful and persevering endeavor on the part of parents, to lay the foundation of a healthy constitution in their offspring by subjecting them to that course of regimen, 'which takes the infant from the cradle, and conducts him along through childhood and youth, up to high maturity, in such a manner, as to give strength to his arm, swiftness to his feet, solidity and amplitude to his muscles, symmetry to his frame, and expansion to all his vital energies.'

Advice of this nature strikes with peculiar force on almost every ear. There is scarce a social circle among us, which does not mourn over the untimely decline and death of some youthful member; there is scarce a society or parish, that has not had to lament the blasting of their hopes by the wasting hand of consumption, laid heavily and surely on the young minister of promise, of piety and talent. Can these inroads of disease be prevented? Can any habits of life be recommended, which shall prepare the frame to combat with climate, and nature, and weariness of mind? Or shall we content ourselves with the belief that this scourge of our country exists in the air we breathe, irresistibly commissioned by over-ruling Providence to say to the tide of knowledge, Thus far shalt thou go

and no farther? For such seem to us to be its effects, when it prostrates the man on whose advancement in science and on whose usefulness to the world, in the application of his discoveries to the wants and convenience of others, we had built high expectations. The advice, *never to despair*, is applicable here. It is undoubtedly true, that the character of diseases is constantly changing, and it must be equally true that some cause for these changes exists in the varied modes of living, the introduction of new articles of food into common use for daily diet, and new articles of medicine in the practice of physic, and new modes of treatment, in some diseases which make a powerful impression on the human system. Here then, as in other cases, much is to be hoped for from the spirit of observation. We must mark well the rock on which we have seen the health of others dashed and their constitutions shattered: we must avoid the roads which led them into the valleys of despondence, and shun the courses which carried them down to the grave before their time. On this topic the address under review concludes with the following observations.

'The finest constitution, the growth of many years, may be ruined in a few months. However good the health of a student may be when he enters college, it requires much care and pains to preserve it; and there is a very common mistake as to the real cause why so many fail. Hard study has all the credit of undermining many a constitution, which would have sustained twice as much application, and without injury too, by early rising and walking, and by keeping up a daily acquaintance with the saw and the axe. Worthless in themselves, then, as are the elements which compose this mortal frame, so essential are its healthful energies to the operations of mind, that so long as the body and soul remain united, too much care can hardly be bestowed upon the former for the sake of the latter.'

It is manifest that no rules can be given which shall apply to every case of declining health. The same articles of food are not adapted to every stomach; but every man of common sagacity may learn from a little experience what articles agree or disagree with himself, and every man should have prudence enough to refrain from that which has been palpably injurious to him more than once. Different persons perhaps require various quantities of aliment; but every man is conscious when he indulges beyond the calls of nature, and wisdom teaches him the benefits of moderation. That species of exercise which for one would be invigorating, and send through every limb the pulse of joy and vivacity, would perhaps exhaust the sinking powers of another, and be followed by las-

situde and languor. Four hours of sleep may suffice the wants of one man, at the age of forty-five or sixty, while another just emerging from puberty may demand no less than eight. One person may have acquired such firmness of habit, that he can endure the scorchings of the sun and the peltings of the storm without suffering any thing of harm: another's health may compel him to graduate his dress by the thermometer, and to retreat into the shade from the summer's heat, and take shelter at the fire-side from the severities of winter.

But there is one rule to which we believe all may advantageously adhere. *Cultivate habits of regularity.* Let the hours for sleeping and waking be *regular.* Let the student satisfy himself that eight, seven or six hours of rest will serve to replenish the day's exhaustion; and then let him invariably take his six, seven, or eight hours; and be sure that they commence as early as ten o'clock. Midnight is no time for that man's studies who regards his health: the book and the pen should be thrown aside, half an hour, at least, before we lay our bodies down. The mind derives as little benefit from that sleep to which the student rushes from his books, as the body does from food taken hastily in the hurry of business or of work: both are refreshed for the moment; but the body acquires no nutriment and the mind no vigor, to enable either the one or the other to renew their toil on the succeeding day, with that alacrity which we all feel after calm repose or undisturbed repasts. Let the hours for meals be also *regular ;* let the quantity of food be *regularly* the same, or if this be increased or diminished, let that be done with *regularity:* let the kind and quality of food be *regular*, not to-day restricting one's self to a dry crust and cup of water, and to morrow indulging in the richest of the market. Above all things be *regularly* slow in eating: tax not the stomach with the duties of the teeth. The time lost at the table will be gained at the desk, in consequence of the freedom from oppression, and buoyancy of spirits which follows a light and well digested dish. Intense study should never deprive the invalid of his regular meal: if when the hour returns his appetite does not return with it, yet let the student leave his task and take his seat at the family board; this will revive his nature, and probably waken him to a relish of what is necessary for his support.

We might add here some suggestions on the expediency of adjusting the kind and degree of exercise to be taken by different individuals, *acording to some rule:* our thoughts, however, have been so amply anticipated in former numbers of this Journal, that we dispense with them and proceed to consider the second division of President Humphrey's address, which relates to *intellectual improvement.*

On this head he commences with such observations as these: 'It is the intelligent and immortal mind, which pre-eminently distinguishes man *** but this intelligent and immortal principle *** is not created in full strength and maturity. As the body passes slowly through infancy and childhood, so does the mind. Feeble at first, it "grows with the growth and strengthens with the strength" of the corporeal system. Destitute alike of knowledge at their birth, the children of one family, or generation, have, in this respect, no advantage over those of another. All, the high as well as the low, the rich as well as the poor, have every thing to learn. No one was ever born a Newton, or an Edwards. It is patient, vigorous and long continued application that makes the great mind. All must begin with the simplest elements of knowledge, and advance from step to step in nearly the same manner.'

The doctrine advanced in the above quotation finds many disposed to controvert it. Differences in dispositions and in the character of intellect discover themselves so early, that most people would without reflection pronounce such differences to be innate; and there are not a few who might shrink from the theological conclusions to which the adoption of the doctrine would almost necessarily lead. Apart from the latter consideration, however, the question is of less importance than may at first view appear. For whether all are born endowed with equal talent or otherwise, it is past doubt that changes are produced in individual infants, by every one of the varying accidents to which every one of them is subjected, which by the time a child has come to be able to communicate his ideas amount to the same thing. In either case it is true in the words of the address, that 'in every system of education, two things should be kept steadily in view:—*first*, that the mind itself is to be *formed;* is to be gradually expanded and strengthened into vigorous manhood, by the proper exercise of its faculties; and *secondly*, that it is to be enriched and embellished with various knowledge.'

'That, then, must obviously be the best system of mental education, which does most to develope and strengthen the intellectual powers, and which pours into the mind the richest streams of science and literature. The object of teaching should never be, to excuse the student from thinking and reasoning; but to learn(?) him how to think and to reason. It is his own application that is to give him distinction. It is *climbing* the hill of science by dint of effort and perseverance and not being *carried up* on other men's shoulders. Let every youth, therefore, early settle it in his mind, that if he would ever be any thing, he has got(?) to *make himself;* or in other words, to rise by personal application. Let him always try his own strength, and try it effectually, before he is allowed to call upon

Hercules. Put him first upon his own invention; send him back again and again to the resources of his own mind, and make him feel, that there is nothing too hard for industry and perseverance to accomplish.

'In this view of the subject, it becomes a very nice, not to say difficult question, how far it is expedient to simplify elementary books in our primary schools; but more especially, in the advanced stages of a liberal education. I am aware, that much may be said in favor of the simplest and easiest lessons for children; and I freely admit, that several elementary writers of the present day, are entitled to much credit for what they have done in this humble; though highly important sphere. I am convinced, however, that even here the simplifying process has been carried too far.

'It seems to be taken for granted, that every thing should be made as plain and easy for the learner as possible. Hence to be held in check during a long and painful hour or more, by a single proposition in Euclid, is considered an intolerable hardship by those, who dislike nothing so much as close and slowly productive thinking. It seems never to have occurred to their minds, that this is the very kind of exercise, which is indipensable, to give scope and energy to the intellectual powers.'

Some judicious thoughts are offered by President Humphrey, in this connection, upon the method of teaching by lectures, and the new modes of *itinerant lecturing*, and other 'time and book and labor saving expedients' which have been devised to obviate the necessity of intellectual effort. These, with some honorable exceptions, he calls 'Protean forms of literary quackery which cannot hold the ascendency long in any enlightened community.' All we would say in favor of them is, that they may possibly excite here and there, in some individual, a taste for some study which he might not otherwise have acquired, and which may occasionally be cultivated to public benefit. Still, we cannot help regretting that the writer has not, when touching on this and the preceding topics, used a less vague and more guarded phraseology. There is something, we think, too indefinite in the animadversions on the simplifying of elementary books, and on the expedient of itinerant lecturing. The author has, we admit, made use of some qualifying expressions. But on a point like this the utmost precision is required.

We pass to the third and last great branch of education, the *moral:* here Dr. Humphrey tells us, 'I do not merely say that this branch is *indispensable*—for, in a sense, it is *every thing*. What would a finely cultivated mind, united to the best physical constitution be, without moral principle? What but mere brute force, impelled by the combined and terrible energies of a perverted understanding

and a depraved heart? How much worse than physical imbecility, is strength employed in doing evil? How much more to be dreaded than the most profound ignorance, is a high state of mental cultivation, when once men have broken away from the control of conscience and the Bible.

'Without the fear of God nothing can be secure for one moment. Without the control of moral and religious principle, education is a drawn and polished sword, in the hands of a gigantic maniac. In his madness he may fall upon its point, or bathe it in the blood of the innocent. Great and highly cultivated talents, allied to skepticism, or infidelity, are the right arm that "scatters firebrands arrows and death." After all the dreams of human perfectibility, and all the hosannas which have been profanely lavished upon reason, philosophy and literature, who, but for the guardianship of religion, could protect his beloved daughters, or be safe in his own house for one night? What would civil government be in the profound sleep of conscience, and in the absence of right moral habits and feelings—what, but an iron despotism on the one hand, or intoxicated anarchy on the other?

'Let that system of religious education which is begun in the family, be carried into the primary school, from thence into the academy and up to the public seminary. Such a course of moral instruction, is the more important in this country, on account of the free and republican character of all our institutions.'

The concluding parts of this address have reference, to the principles which actuated the fathers of New England in the establishment of the older colleges, particularly their union of scientific with religious instruction; to the subject of the age at which youth should be permitted to commence college life; to the expediency of affording assistance to youth disposed to seek an education with views to the ministry; to some of the circumstances under which the institution at Amherst has grown up; and finishes with a glowing anticipation of the good that shall be effected within its walls.

Through the whole of the address we discover a display of ardent zeal, which leaves on the reader's mind a very favorable impression respecting the character of the author. When he glances at the sorrowful event which vacated the chair of the college, his style is tender and pathetic: when the cause of religion and morality is the theme, it is firm and plain; when he discusses the philosophy of mind, it is lucid, and convincing: on early education it evinces the anxiety of parental watchfulness: on christian charity it is warm; in classical allusions it shows familiarity with standard authors, and, where knowledge on general subjects should be expected, it is, so far as we can judge, uniformly correct.

Remarks on Greek Grammars. Boston, 1826: pp. 27.

This pamphlet is a reprint of a review which appeared in Nos. 5. and 6. of this Journal; and it is gratifying to find that the leading subject of that article excites such an interest as to call for its publication in a separate form.

The avowed principle of the Journal of Education being that no favorite theories shall be obtruded to the exclusion of fair discussion, the individual who writes the following strictures, feels at liberty to express fully his dissent from some of the opinions advanced in the Remarks, and more especially as they inculcate notions which seem likely to retard rather than accelerate the progress of improvement in education.

Before calling in question however a single statement in the Remarks, it is due to the author of that article to say, that the learning and the research which it displays are creditable not only to himself but to his country. The writer shows that he possesses not merely the taste, but—what at our day and in this country are a much rarer and higher commendation—the industry and the zeal of a genuine scholar. High intellectual attainments, however, are not always a guarranty for correct views of the human mind or of the great subject of education; and they never can supply the place of skill and ingenuity in the humble art of teaching. A profound scholar, indeed, is not unfrequently the worst qualified person for aiding the details of education. He sits in his closet, contemplating with a high enthusiasm the works of stupendous intellects, in their rich marginal garniture of annotation and commentary, till the intensity of his admiration becomes an absorbing passion which disqualifies him, in a degree, for the office of deciding a purely practical question on the merits of the comparatively mechanical process of teaching.

The professed scholar's devotion to the classics and to the minuter shades of thought and expression which constitute the niceties of grammar, and his attachment to the scholastic habits long associated with his favorite pursuits, are very powerful barriers to his attaining correct or liberal views on the subject of instruction. He has entailed on his mind a dry and exclusive style of thought, an abstraction, a stillness and a languor, which revolt from the bustle of activity and change; and which lead him to regard every attempt at reform as a troublesome innovation. Even the dull scholastic aspect of his own education, has borrowed a reflected charm from the venerated features of antiquity, which is more congenial to his mental habits, than any trait of the busy and intruding face of modern improvement.

The attempt to introduce the inductive method of instruction in the languages, seems accordingly to be looked on with no friendly eye by the author of the article under review. 'Induction,' says that writer, 'is a term which is constantly in the mouths of the superficial, by whom its real signification is as ill understood as its history is by those who suppose the discovery of it to be the peculiar boast of modern times.' This sweeping assertion requires a little examination. The 'popular cant about induction,' is a thing happily so prevalent that it may be traced in essays, pamphlets, and school-books, in all parts of the country. But the work which has most successfully maintained the utility of inductive instruction is the United States Literary Gazette; a publication which has done more to reform the character of instruction, within a few years, than had previously been effected through any other channel. Some writers in that work have, it is true, used the terms induction and analysis somewhat unguardedly. They have not appended a definition to these terms in every instance in which they have used them, setting forth that the words were to be taken, not always in a strictly scientific sense, but in a popular acceptation; not in the sense of reducing to elements, (for then we should confine it to chemistry,) but in the acknowledged and authorised usage of tracing to principles. But, must writers who are contributing to a popular work, always feel bound to remind their readers that they are using words in their popular sense?—Farther:

'If, indeed, those who would have us adopt this method in the acquisition of languages, as we understand their use of the term, would also require us to follow it, in all our studies, the argument would at least be consistent Now it may be asked, if we are not to avail ourselves of those general principles, or rules, in *languages*, which have been deduced from actual observation, but must begin anew by 'induction,' why should we not proceed by the same method in all the *sciences?* Why should we not, for example, in astronomy throw aside, as so much useless lumber, those sublime general truths, the discovery of which seems to have been reserved during so many ages by the author of nature for the mighty minds of Kepler and Newton; as the discovery and elucidation of numberless other general results, flowing from these, has also been reserved for a few, and very few, of their illustrious successors? Why should we not, too, in the study of other parts of nature, as botany, mineralogy, chemistry, and, in short, every branch of knowledge, refuse to avail ourselves of the like general truths, which were first discerned and investigated by the great men, who have immortalised themselves as the founders of these sciences? No: in the sciences, generally, it would be thought preposterous to keep a learner in ignorance of the various general truths, which have been already discovered, and to direct him to proceed by his own

strength to investigate them for himself by the process of 'induction.' What! shall the whole natural world be laid before the pupil, in all its apparent confusion and irregularity, and he then be directed to class and arrange its parts, and with endless labor to investigate, if he should have the sagacity to discern them, those innumerable general results, which have been ascertained with so much labor, and which, in fact, constitute science?'

This careless sort of reasoning comes very unexpectedly from a person of our author's intellectual power and discipline.—The question is not by any means *whether* 'we are to avail ourselves of general principles or rules in language,' but *how* are we to avail ourselves of them. Must a pupil submissively take the mere assertion of his book or his teacher for his knowledge of a fact or a principle—or may he be permitted to see and know for himself? Does the teacher acquit himself best who allows his pupil to learn by rote the rule 'a verb agrees with its nominative case in number and person,' and then shows him the application of the rule in particular instances,—or he who guides the mind of his pupil first to the fact mentioned in the rule, as it presents itself in one example, then in another, and so on till he has actually convinced the understanding of the boy, first, that there is such a fact as that on which the rule is based, and then that this fact is of so frequent occurrence as to become susceptible of being expressed in the form of a rule? Which of these teachers does his duty? Which of them is forming useful habits in the young mind? With which would a parent of common intelligence prefer placing his son, were the choice of instructers offered?

The teacher's office is not to make his pupil 'begin *anew* by induction,' but to *guide* him right, to train him to the exercise of his own powers, to enable him to achieve his own progress. Inductive teaching, (if we know any thing of it after many years' practice,) is not beginning anew by an independent course of effort: it is making the wisest use—the most practical one, at least—of the labors of our predecessors, and especially of the great lights which great minds have shed on the path along which they have travelled.

If inductive teaching implies that the teacher guides the pupil, and that the latter is not left to begin *anew*, then the whole of the declamatory argument about throwing away the aid offered by the discoveries of Newton, &c. falls to the ground.

'If, then, the present methods of teaching the sciences in general are proper, we can perceive no solid reason why the same course, to a certain extent, should not be pursued in the acquisition of foreign languages.'

The reviewer here returns to a more moderate tone; and in the phrase 'to a certain extent,' comes to ground on which the most sanguine advocate of analytic instruction would be willing to meet him. Synthesis is, to a certain extent, as valuable an instrument in teaching as analysis. The complaint is not that the synthetic method is used, but that it is used indiscriminately and invariably, and in cases where the analytic would be more serviceable.

The quotation from Sir William Jones, is, perhaps, when attentively considered, one of the most powerful arguments for that method of teaching which the reviewer condemns.

'When the student,' says he, (Sir William Jones, speaking of the Persian language,) 'can read the characters with fluency, and has learned the true pronunciation of them from the mouth of a native, *let him peruse the grammar with attention, and commit to memory the regular inflections of the nouns and the verbs;* he need not burden his mind with those that deviate from the common form, as they will be insensibly learned in a short course of reading.'

The question may we think be confidently put to any unbiassed mind—If the irregular inflections (the exceptions) occur so frequently that they are *insensibly* learned, and the task of formal committing to memory may be dispensed with, will not the regular inflections, from their much greater number and their frequency of occurrence, be much more likely to be *insensibly* learned; and does not the argument for not burdening the memory acquire in fact, infinitely greater force?

We are quite aware that the answer to this question involves the soundness of an argument *ex cathedra*, which might well stagger the boldest inquirer. But let things and not names decide the point. How would we settle it, if we should for a moment lay aside the awe of literary authority, and bring the argument to the impartial test of its own weight only? When Sir William Jones communicates a fact regarding the etymology or the syntax of the Persian language, we would receive it with the profoundest deference. But when he lays down a rule in teaching, involving a principle which is founded on a well known fact in the habits of the human mind, his statements may and ought to be canvassed by the humblest teacher who wishes to be guided by truth rather than by authority.

As for the quotation from the venerable Lily, quaint and curious though it be, it fails of answering the reviewers purpose; for it necessarily falls along with the direction quoted from the great oriental scholar mentioned above.

The paragraph which follows is, we think, another instance of random assertion in the place of sound argument.

'We have extended these remarks further, perhaps, than the subject before us demanded, because we have observed opinions promulgated in some publications of the present day, which we believe to be of erroneous tendency in regard to certain fundamental principles of education, as well as the practical mode of applying them. There can be no doubt, that the knowledge of *particulars*, to speak in scholastic language, is the most exact and thorough; but, it is equally certain, that as this sort of knowledge in all our necessary studies is beyond the grasp of man, we must content ourselves with that approximation to it, which consists in the knowledge of *generals*.'

We are happy to find so able an advocate of the old method, go so far in favor of the new, as to admit that 'the knowledge of *particulars* is the most exact and thorough.' This sentiment deserves to be written in indelible characters over the door of every school-room, and to be suspended over the desk of every student. 'THE KNOWLEDGE OF PARTICULARS IS THE MOST EXACT AND THOROUGH!' Now, with this conclusion before his eyes, what capable teacher, what true scholar, would be content with a flimsy knowledge of generals; when the exact and thorough understanding of particulars is within his reach, and needs but an energetic and persevering effort to grasp it. The late President Dwight has, in one of his letters on New-England, very shrewdly divided mankind into two classes—students of generals, and students of particulars. Into the former class he throws the indolent, the acquiescing, the superficial, the ill-informed; and into the latter the enterprising, the accurate, and the profound. The division wears an air of humor, but it betrays an observant and penetrating mind.—We will leave the illustration, however, to speak for itself.

To return to the Remarks—'it is equally certain,' says the reviewer, 'that this sort of knowledge in all our necessary studies is beyond the grasp of man.' Indeed! How is it certain? In how many, and in what parts of our necessary studies is it certain? Who knows the force or the extent of the grasp of man? Has it yet been fully tried, after the invigorating training of a rational and practical and inductive course of discipline in all its efforts?

The point to be proved in the present instance, is, that in the acquisition of *languages*, the desirable species of knowledge cannot be attained. How far a mere assertion in general terms can affect the particular case before us, must depend on a predisposition to content ourselves with the authority of the individual who makes the assertion. The zealous advocate of induction is equally confident in his assertion that the exact and thorough species of knowledge is attainable in this department of education; and he not only reasons plausibly and practically, but he tells you that the induc-

tive method has been completely successful, wherever it has been tried in this country; that it is adopted in the public schools of France; where boys learn as much of Latin in five months on this plan, as on the obsolete one they did, or is done elsewhere, in years; and that it is rapidly gaining ground in England, in excellent private schools. Here are facts. Argument and declamation cannot affect them.

Inductive instruction in the languages is in this country but in its incipient stage of experiment. Thus far it has succeeded beyond expectation; and we hope that no statements in the pages of this Journal, come from what source they may, will have any tendency to check experiment, under circumstances especially in which it is found successful elsewhere.

The writer of the Remarks seems to think it a matter of great urgency that in teaching Greek grammar one fixed volume should be used to the exclusion of every other. We agree with the author to a certain extent. While teachers are so variously qualified for their office, it is important that there should be a perfect uniformity in the vehicle of instruction. But the day, we hope, is coming when our teachers will not bind themselves to follow the footsteps of any single grammarian, but will be found able to compare the statements and the merits of every useful writer on the subject which they teach. This is, after all, the only true method of instructing. The teacher who merely marks off a certain number of lines to be learned and recited, might be fully replaced by an automaton. Nor is it enough that an instructer explains what is set down for him and his pupil in the book. He must not fetter his own mind nor his pupil's in this way. He should come to the business of teaching, with a mind stored with all that is useful and instructive in the subject of every lesson, and should transfer, as far as he can, his own stock of ideas to the opening mind that is before him. He should be able not merely to appreciate, but, where it may be necessary, to fill up, and even to correct, his text-book.

The ill-informed and the prejudiced may decry oral instruction—of which by the way they know little or nothing from observation or experience. But teachers who are zealous to improve themselves and their pupils, should never forget that in every good school of most countries in Europe, as well as in every seminary, up to the universities, this is the prevailing method of teaching, in every branch. Written lectures are, in fact, but a more regular shape of oral instruction; and judicious lecturing, accompanied by sufficient illustration and by examination and exercise on the part of the pupil, is, so far at least as the human mind has yet advanced, the most successful method of imparting instruction.

At another opportunity I may follow the learned reviewer further. I would not, however, take leave of him for the present, without expressing my profound respect for the learning he displays; and if I have used great freedom in my remarks, it has been only when the writer has stepped from his study into the school-room, and has expressed a thought which seemed hostile to improvement in instruction.

INTELLIGENCE.

PROSPECTUS OF THE LONDON GYMNASTIC SOCIETY.

A short account of the revival of Gymnastics, &c.

It may be truly said, that the revival of Gymnastics, so long buried under the ruins of antiquity, is one of the greatest advancements yet made in the science of education, and not among the least conspicuous improvements of the present enlightened age. Every one who reflects,—every one who knows any thing, knows, and by experience, how intimate a connection there exists between body and mind,—how invariably the healthy or sickly temperament of the one influences that of the other; that when the body is strong, healthy and active, so is the mind cheerful and elastic, and that when the former is sickly and diseased, so is the latter languid and depressed. The ancient Greeks and Romans understood this; and their education was accordingly directed to the developement, not only of the mental, but also of the coporeal powers; and this corporeal branch of education was termed Gymnastics.

In the middle ages, however, when education got into the hands, and was at the sole disposal, of the monks, it is not surprising that Gymnastics altogether disappeared. The lords of the soil indeed, knights and princes, contended at their splendid tilts and tournaments; but the mass of the people were degraded and enslaved, the more effectually to administer to the pleasures and the pride of their oppressors. This age of chivalry, as it was termed, passed away however in succeeding ages; even these knightly games became extinct, and Gymnastics, gradually losing ground, were at length reduced to the very name, known possibly to some musty philosophers who might have stumbled on it in their insane because indiscriminate enthusiasm for whatever might bear the stamp of barbarism or antiquity. In modern times, however, more practical men have sprung up amongst us—men who not only have detected, but pointed out, and, as far as in them lay supplied, the deficiency. To these men—Professors Gutsmuths and Jahn—the merit of the discovery and revival of this long lost art,—'this relic of an age gone by'—is more particularly due. After a careful examination of the structure of the human body, they devised numerous exercises, arranged them in a well adapted series, and again restored Gymnastics to something like their former rank and importance.

In many towns of Germany and Switzerland, Gymnasia were established. The youth, and even grown men, soon derived more pleasure from exercises which fortified, than in pleasures which paralised, the powers of their bodies. By the consciousness of increased vigor, the mind too became powerfully excited, and strove for equal perfection, and the constant ambition of every pupil was to

verify in his own instance, the truth of the adage, '*Mens sana in corpore sano,—A sound mind in a healthy body.*' Even the naturally indolent were irresistibly carried away by the zeal of their comrades; persons, diseased and weakly, recovered their health, for the restoration of which these exercises were possibly the only effectual remedy The certificates of physicians wherever Gymnastics were introduced, concurred as to their healthful tendency, nor were the highest testimonials from parents and teachers found wanting. Indeed, all young men who cultivated them, were acknowledged to have improved in health and morals, and to have acquired an open, free, and graceful deportment. For three or four years past, Gymnastics have been also introduced into England; and for so limited a period have met with decided success. They have been patronised by the Government—have been adopted in the army; in the Royal Military, and Naval schools; besides the Charter-house, and many private establishments. Private Gymnasia, too, have also appeared in various parts of the metropolis, and received considerable encouragement. But in order to render Gymynastics generally beneficial, and to secure to them a permanent, and a national basis, a Public Gymnasium has been established in a central part of London, for the admission of all persons of character and respectability, and on terms as nearly as possible proportioned to their pecuniary abilities. Its conduct and regulation will be placed under the management of a Society.

In London, the birth-place as it were of invention, where the labor of her inhabitants is more exclusively mental than in any other locality, it is evident that a provision for maintaining something like an equilibrium between the energies of body and mind must be supplied, before their proverbially care-worn faces and emaciated frames cease to excite the commiseration of the philanthropist—before

> '————The languid eye, the cheek
> Deserted of its bloom, the flaccid, shrunk,
> And withered muscle; and the vapid soul'

shall cease to reproach, not their owners, but the bad system which has engendered these horrors, and seeks to perpetuate them.

That an institution similar to the one proposed, is and has long been, a desideratum in this huge metropolis, will be obvious to all who reflect on the impossibility of persons whose employments are sedentary, attaining, after the confinement and anxiety of the day, a requisite portion of healthful exercise and excitement to recruit and 'exhilarate the spirit, and restore the tone of languid nature.' This desirable object, it will be admitted, is not accomplished by the dull, monotonous, and even pernicious practice of listlessly strolling about the streets without a definite or a useful motive; still less, by dissipating the remnant of their already abused faculties in the unhallowed atmosphere of the tavern or the club. To the clerk, this course will but accelerate the mischief arising from eight or ten hours' 'dry drudgery at the desk's dead wood;' to the artisan, it is not calculated to ensure peaceful slumbers, and to enable him to meet the duties of the morrow 'with nerves new braced and spirits cheered.'

In hypochondriacal, and all other melancholy disorders, people are too apt to acquire the notion, that mind alone is concerned; whereas, the body will usually be found to own at least an equal share, if not indeed the origin, of the evil. There is a mutual re-action between them, and by lessening it on one side, you diminish the pain on both. Hyponchondria is the name of one of the regions of the stomach—a very instructive etymology. The blood of a melancholy man is thick and slow; that of a lively man clear and quick. A natural conclusion therefore, is, that the remedy would be found in putting the blood into action. 'By ceaseless action all that is, subsists.' Exercise is the best means of effecting it, as the impulse given by artificial stimuli is too sudden, the effect too transitory, and the cost to nature too great. Plato had so high an opinion of the medicinal powers of exercise for disorders of the mind, that he said it was even a cure for a wounded conscience.

Impressed with the truth of the principles here advanced, and entertaining a strong conviction of the high importance of the subject, several Gymnasts have formed themselves into a Society for their advancement, and the following are the laws, regulations, purposes, and institutions, which they have adopted.

*Gymnastics**

Is a term of very extended signification. By the ancient Greeks it signified that part of physics which relates to exercises for the health. It was that branch of education which after certain prescribed rules, tended to develope the bodily powers of man, to render his frame robust and agile, and to fortify it against the common accidents of life. As long as man possesses a body, and requires for his earthly existence a bodily life, so long must Gymnastics form a very principal object of man's cultivation.

*Gymnasium**

Was the name given to the place where the Greeks performed their public exercises. It is not enough to know the theory, the practice must be combined with it; and, man, being a social animal, that practice is not to be attained in solitude. The Gymnast does not arrive at his enviable pre-eminence by hear-say; he does not bear about him that delightful sensation of capability to perform and endure what is out of the reach of ordinary men, and by a mere act of volition too, without first making repeated trials and efforts, and by witnessing in the Gymnasium the performances of others, thereby encouraging the pleasing hope, that *his* exertions too, will be crowned with success.

Rules of the Society of Gymnasts.

I. The Gymnasts to be classed according to age and size, and to be divided into parties of nine or ten.

II. The Gymnasts to choose annually a Director, a Vice Director, two Secretaries, and as many Leaders and Under Leaders, as there are parties;—the Vice Director, and two Secretaries to be also eligible as Leaders.

III. The Director, Vice Director, two Secretaries, and the Leaders, form a Committee.

IV. The Committee constitute the deliberative and executive authority of the Society.

V. The Committee assembles as often as requisite, at least once every month.

VI. Two thirds of the members are requisite to a legal meeting.

VII. The affairs of the society are the object of this deliberation.

VIII. The Director, or in his place, the Vice Director, is the President of the Committee: he summons the members of the Committee to extraordinary meetings, is the general leader of the exercises of which he devises the plan in such a manner that after a certain time each party may go through the whole series, and he is the Superintendent and inspector of the Gymnasium.

IX. The Secretary minutes down the deliberations of the Committee which he reads before the general assembly and records the decisions of the Society. He keeps a register of all Gymnasts according to their classes, with their ages, their christian, surnames, and residences, he also manages the correspondence of the Society.

X. The Under-Secretary represents the Secretary in his absence; he likewise keeps a register of all Gymnasts after their time of entrance and secession; receives admission money, and the monthly contributions, transacts the pecuniary business, and delivers in accounts every month before the Committee, and every three months before the general assembly.

* As the correct pronunciation of these words has acquired something more than ordinary importance, we shall be indulged, we hope, in setting down their orthoepy. Gymnastic (*jimnastic*,) Gymnasum (*jimnāzhium*.) The latter word, particularly, is often mispronounced.

XI. The Leaders have the particular inspection and direction of their respective classes, and instruct them during the time of exercise, after the plan devised by the director. Once every week they meet on the exercise ground with the Director, to perfect themselves in difficult exercises.

XII. The Gymnasts endeavor to attend regularly at the appointed days and hours, and to assemble at the general meetings of the society; and each of them has the right to submit propositions in writing, which he must give to the Committee for discussion.

XIII. The Society possesses within itself its own legislative power. Two thirds of the members are necessary to form a lawful assembly. The deliberations of the committee are to be laid before the general assembly, and every question is decided by a majority of votes.

XIV. Every spring, in the month of March, the exercises commence, and end in the month of October. During this period, two days a week, and from two to three hours each day are devoted to them.

XV. A few days before the exercises begin, the Director of the last year, summons the Gymnasts to a general meeting, in which the officers for the current year are elected.

XVI. Persons wishing to become members of the Society, must write down their Christian, surnames, and residence, which will be delivered to a member of the Committee, and if admitted, they must pledge themselves, to follow the rules and laws of the Society, pay their entrance money, fix how much they can contribute (not less than half a crown monthly) and receive a metal-mark and a digest of the institution and laws.

XVII. Out of the funds, the hire of the exercise ground, the repairing of the apparatus and the advanced capital for the establishment are to be repaid.

XVIII. Societies forming themselves in other towns or places, are to be assisted by aid and advice, and, as soon as the funds of the Society will permit, by advances in money.

XIX. Once every year a Gymnastic feast is to be held, to which the best Gymnasts from other Gymnasiums are to be invited. All who wish to establish a claim to the prize, choose three arbitrators; and the best Gymnasts of the day receive a mark of distinction from the Society. After the exercises, a simple repast, seasoned by good nature, good sense, and a festive song, conclude the whole.

Spectators.

The Gymnasium is neither a stage on which the spectators are to expect an histrionic representation, nor is it a secret hall. To all respectable persons free admission is permitted; but they must content themselves with looking on, and confine themselves to the place allotted to visiters. Thus every body will be afforded an opportunity of estimating the nature and value of Gymnastic exercises, but not of interrupting them. Whoever wishes to know more than what the evidence of his eyes furnishes, must choose another opportunity to obtain his information.

Gymnastic dress.

Without a permanent Gymnastic dress, the troublesome change of fashion would destroy the exercises one after another, and in the end abolish Gymnastics altogether. A Gymnastic dress must be durable, cheap, and adapted for all the motions. Unbleached linen is the fittest material; of which each can easily procure himself a jacket, and a pair of trowsers. The exercises must be performed with the head and hands uncovered, and without a neckcloth; high shoes are preferable to boots.

The Gymnast's conduct.

Good manners within the precincts of a Gymnasium effect more than the best laws work without. The severest penalty is exclusion from the Society. It cannot be too frequently and too effectually enforced on the mind of the Gymnast who is strongly imbued with a love for his art, that no one should be more careful

to preserve an unpolluted state of body and mind; and least of all should he avail himself of his bodily prowess to invade and set at defiance his moral duties. Virtue and valor should form the character, and force, freedom, and festivity compose the wealth of the Gymnast; the universal laws of morality constitute his highest ambition. Whatever disgraces others is in him also disgraceful. To become a standard of excellence should be his constant endeavor, for realising which, the principal precepts are, an unremitting endeavor to attain the highest degree of perfection of which the powers of his body and mind may be susceptible; to be industrious—to study his profession or his art earnestly—to participate in nothing unmeaning or effeminate, not to allow himself to be seduced by pleasures, pastimes, and enjoyments, which degrade and impoverish his youth.

Regulations for the exercise ground.

I. No Gymnast must perform the exercise before he has taken off his coat, hat, and neckcloth.

II. No Gymnast to quit his class, and no class to perform any other than the prescribed exercises.

III. No Gymnast is to smoke, eat, or drink, during the exercises.

IV. No Gymnast to use any part of the apparatus for any exercises but those for which it is adapted, and in its proper place.

V. During the running no one must talk.

VI. No Gymnast to rest on the ground when warm.

VII. No Gymnast to use any but his own leaping-pole and lance, on which his name will be placed.

VIII. No Gymnast to ascend the ladder otherwise than by climbing with the hands.

IX. No Gymnast, by any act of annoyance, to prevent another from doing the prescribed exercises, which it is hoped all will unite in performing in peace and friendship, joy and jollity—the ancient boast and characteristic of Englishmen.

PROSPECTUS OF MR. EMERSON'S FEMALE SEMINARY, AT WETHERSFIELD, CONNECTICUT.

[The Reverend Mr. Emerson conducted, with great success, a female school at Saugus in this state, and left a strong impression of his excellent qualifications for the office of an instructer. His seminary at Wethersfield is, we understand, in a very flourishing condition; and the enlarged views of education which are exhibited in his prospectus, show him to be well entitled to the extensive patronage which he receives. We would take this opportunity of inviting the attention of instructers to the unpretending pamphlet which its author has denominated a *prospectus;* but which we have no hesitation in mentioning as one of the best manuals hitherto published on the subject of practical education. In a future number we shall endeavor to do greater justice to the extent and the value of Mr. Emerson's ideas on the culture of the female mind.]

Branches taught.

The principal branches to be pursued in the Seminary, are Reading, Chirography, Arithmetic, Geography, Grammar, Rhetoric, Composition, History, Natural Philosophy, Chemistry, Intellectual Philosophy, Logic, Education, and Theology.

Most of the Young Ladies will also devote some attention to Pronunciation, Spelling, Defining, Pen-making, Geometry, Drawing, Punctuation, Astronomy, Chronology, and Exegesis.

The members of the Seminary will receive their instructions principally in three Classes, denominated the *Senior*, the *Middle* and the *Junior*.

Junior Class.

The principal branches to be pursued by this class are Reading, Chirography, Arithmetic, Geography, Grammar, Composition, and History. The following books will be used by this class: the Bible, the Union Catechism, an English Dictionary, (Walker's is preferred,) Colburn's First Lessons in Arithmetic, Murray's Grammar and Exercises, Worcester's Geography and Atlases, and Morse and Parish's History of New-England.

For admission into this class, Young Ladies will be expected to be able to read common prose with a good degree of readiness and correctness; to have made considerable progress in Spelling; to have a general acquaintance with Grammar, and some knowledge of Scripture History. Requisite age, 13.

Middle Class.

The principal attention of this class will be directed to Reading, Chirography, Arithmetic, Geography, Grammar, Rhetoric, Composition, and History.

For admission into this Class, Young Ladies will be expected to be able to read prose and poetry with readiness and correctness; to have made considerable progress in spelling; to be skilled in parsing prose; to have considerable acquaintance with ancient and modern Geography, a good knowledge of the fundamental rules of Aritmetic, and nine sections of Colburn's First Lessons, and such an acquaintance with Scripture History, as may be gained from the Minor Historical Catechism. Requisite age 14.

The following books will be used by this class, the Bible, the Union Catechism, an English Dictionary, Colburn's First Lessons, Colburn's Sequel to his First Lessons, Murray's Grammar and Exercises, Abridgement of Blair's Lectures, Woodbridge's [large] Geography, with Woodbridge's or Worcester's maps, Whelpley's Compend of History, Goodrich's History of the United States, and the Night Thoughts.

Senior Class.

It is expected, that candidates for admission into this Class, will be well acquainted with the studies, pursued by the other classes; though it will not be necessary for them to have studied the same books. It is particularly required, that they be well acquainted with the whole of Colburn's First Lessons, with Vulgar and Decimal Fractions, Proportion, Interest, and the Square Root.

This Class will pursue their studies in the use of the Bible, Union Catechism, a Dictionary, Watts on the Improvement of the Mind, Conversations on Natural Philosophy, Conversations on Chemistry, Outline of a Course of Lectures on Astronomy, Goldsmith's Abridgement of the History of England, Goodrich's History of the United States, the Night Thoughts, and if there be time, some cheap compend of Ecclesiastical History. This Class will also receive special instruction in Composition. Requisite age, 15.

In some special cases, individuals may possibly be received into the Classes, a little under the ages above mentioned. It is also to be understood, that any of the above requisitions may be dispensed with, when the good of individuals and of the Seminary manifestly require it.

The Classes will be formed, as soon as practicable, after the opening of the Seminary. For this, however, a few days must necessarily elapse. It is intended, that each Young Lady of sufficient age, shall be placed in the Class, in which she may make the greatest proficiency.

As there will be two recitations in a day, the same individual may belong partly to one Class, and partly to another; if such an arrangement should be thought most beneficial to her. There may, therefore, be five or six gradations, though but three Classes. Any Young Lady may, at any time, be placed in a different Class, if it should appear more conducive to her improvement.

If any Young Lady should find her lessons too easy, she may devote her spare moments either to reading, and consulting such works as may conduce to give

her a more thorough and extended view of the branches, to which she attends; or she may be advanced to a higher Class, or have extra lessons assigned, and at the Monthly Examination receive due credit for her extra performances.

The Young Ladies are requested to bring with them, any books, in their possession, that may be useful for occasional reading or consultation.

As every branch will be taught as regularly and systematically as possible, and as it is highly desirable that each student should understand the reasons of every operation and arrangement, it is earnestly requested, that those who may join the Seminary, especially such as have not been members already, may if possible, enter at the commencement of the season. It is hoped, that some things may be suggested in the introductory lecture, which may conduce to facilitate the progress of the Young Ladies through the whole course of instruction.

The Seminary will be open the ensuing season, during two terms of 14 weeks each, separated by a vacation of a fortnight; the first will commence on the second Wednesday in April, and the second, on the last Wednesday in July. Price of tuition, $ 7 a term, to be paid in advance.

Preparatory School.

A Preparatory School has already commenced. Its principal object is to prepare Young Ladies for the Seminary. In this school, Young Ladies may be prepared for either of the three Classes. Young masters also are here instructed in the same branches. This school is taught principally by Mrs. and Miss Emerson. It will continue, till within a fortnight of the opening of the Seminary.

Price of instruction and fuel in this School, 42 cents a week.

Collateral School.

This School will commence at the same time with the Seminary. It is designed for Young Ladies and Misses, who may not be sufficiently advanced, to join the Seminary.

Price of instruction in this School, 30 cents a week.

The Seminary and two Schools are designed as parts of a systematic course of instruction, in which the teachers will exert their daily efforts to render the progress of their pupils as pleasant, thorough, rapid, and useful, as possible.

Price of board $ 1 50 cents a week, washing, fuel and lights not included.

Students can here be accommodated at the usual prices, with such books, and articles of stationary, as they may have occasion to purchase.

It is hoped, that no person concerned will feel an objection to incurring the expense of such books and apparatus, as are indispensable in this brief literary course. These are the tools of the scholar. And what prudent workman ever grudges the expense of his tools? Good books are surely among the most valuable articles of property we can possess. It is to be considered among the greatest blessings of modern days, that they can be furnished at so cheap a rate. The time has been, when the labor of years must be performed to purchase a single copy of the Bible. The price of many an excellent book may now be considered as a mere trifle, compared with its real value to him who uses it faithfully. How many are there whose literary progress ceases with their pupilage, merely for want of books. How many are now babes in knowledge and pigmies in intellect, that might have been men—that might have been giants, had they only possessed suitable books, and industriously improved them. Let the present generation learn wisdom from the imperfections of those that are past.

MR. G. F. THAYER'S SCHOOL, BOSTON.

[With the merits of Mr. Thayer's efforts in teaching, the editor has had peculiar opportunities of becoming acquainted: the school seems to be conducted with uncommon success. An observer cannot but be struck with the perfect order and the practical and minutely exact instruction by which it is characterised. There are, in particular, two very valuable departments of the course of instruction,—healthful and pleasant exercise, authorised and superintended by the teach-

er, and a regular succession of moral lessons, calculated to be highly useful in the business and intercourse of life. In our next number, we shall enter more fully into the interesting details of the following account with which Mr. Thayer has favored us.]

My school is at present kept in Harvard place, in a very convenient room 40 feet long and 26 broad, lighted on four sides by fourteen windows. Though very central in its location, it is retired from noise and observation. Hence, we gain the four grand requisites for a school, air, light, space, and retiredness. I commenced teaching my present school, in a chamber in the vicinity, in 1820, with two pupils, from which my number gradually increased till 1823, when I removed with about 60 pupils, to the room I now occupy, sometimes called Harvard Hall; where we have at present sixty pupils in the 'all day' school, and fifty —principally from the High and Latin Schools,— at the intermediate;—who, with one or two exceptions, are between the ages of 7 and 14. The interior is very conveniently arranged, having fourteen rows containing room for five pupils each, with seats entirely separate, and sufficient space between and behind them, to admit of the approach of the teacher, or the egress of the pupil, without molesting any individual. Each scholar has a drawer for his books, and the standards under the forms furnish a place to hang his slate, which, kept among his books, would subject them to injury. There are also spacious closets suitable for a library, a stage for declamation, and situations near the four corners of the room for the teachers' desks. Connected with the school room, are a large entry fitted to hang the hats, &c of all the boys, and a small study or recitation room.

The instructers are four in all, but their departments are not very definite. The course of study is at present confined to spelling, reading, writing, arithmetic, grammar, composition, geography, with the use of the terrestrial globe, history, and declamation. To which we add exercises in moral discipline, and elements of gymnastics.

Books used are—Picket's Spelling book, Walker's Dictionary (New-York stereotype edition,) Popular Lessons, Alden's Reader, Scott's Lessons, Pierpont's First Class Book, Robinson's Elements of Arithmetic, Colburn's First Lessons and Sequel, Greenleaf's Grammar, Murray's Grammar (Alger's edition,) Murray's Exercises, Woodbridge's Geography and Atlas, Worcester's ditto (stereotype edition,) with atlas, and Tytler's History.—

The method of instruction, &c. is as follows. Boys assemble at 8 A. M. in the warm season. We have a monitor of order and assistant, appointed from the first and second classes in rotation each day, whose business it is to report all deviations from rule or duty, and keep a memorandum of them on a slate. The assistant performs the office of monitor in his absence or when he is engaged. He is seated so as to face the whole school, and command a view of all. During the first ten minutes, all boys *marked* the day previous, are called by a teacher, who states to each his fault, that he may not plead, as is sometimes done, that *he does not know what his deviation was;* and any defence or justification he may make, is deliberately considered, and the mark consequently either sustained or remitted. If no plea be offered, the offence is reported.—At ten minutes past 8, boys are considered *tardy*, and either so reported, or, if the fault be one of common occurrence, sent home for an apology. An abstract of all the performances of every boy each day, is kept on the class slates, and at this hour, two of the teachers transfer them to each boy's particular account or report, while a third is engaged in preparing writing books, and mending pens for the small boys. Meantime the the principal of the school gives an appropriate order for boys to take their slates and lay them before them, while he reads to them some interesting story, and offers such explanations, comments, and motives for cherishing the moral truth of the tale, as will be apt to present the whole in the most engaging form to their minds, that it may not only be understood and felt, but remembered and made the rule of their after conduct. He suffers no incident that transpires either in school, or abroad, within the circle of his knowledge, from which any good lesson in truth, honesty, fidelity, benevolence, magnanimity, fraternal or filial af-

fection, obedience, purity of language, &c. may be derived, to go unnoticed, endeavoring to inspire his pupils with an ardent love of these and the kindred virtues; while, at the same time, he holds up to detestation the opposite vices. And he has great satisfaction in stating, that these exercises are attended to with an interest and a pleasure, that nothing else in school excites. Sometimes he invites boys to bring with them some anecdotes illustrative of a given virtue, and, if written, reads them to the school, or if remembered by the boys, permits them to relate them in their own language; and to induce them to give some little labor to this out of school, adds some trifling reward. To these recitals boys listen with profound interest. All who can write, and very few cannot—at least well enough to read for themselves—are required to note on their slates every word they do not understand; and the teacher pauses a moment when any word occurs that he thinks needs explanation. The reading finished, a bell is struck, and every boy steps into the aisle, all who have written words in one row, and those who have not, in another. The first boy reads a word by the letters; if spelt right, all who can define it, hold up the hand. The teacher names one, who gives the part of speech and definition; if not correct, another is called on, and another, till the appropriate meaning is given. A second word is read, and so on, through the whole school; and as one boy finishes, he falls in with those who had no words written. It generally happens, that several boys have the same words. When, therefore, a word is read, boys examine their slates, and if their own spelling is correct, add the definition, and often having none to read themselves, join the other line. The teacher, having first called for *attention to false grammar*, sometimes changes the construction of a sentence while reading, and, at the conclusion, requires boys to point it out. The same course is adopted with regard to pronunciation. The results of these expedients would surprise any one not familiar with the details of teaching. The ear of a child detects an error in these things, with the greatest readiness, and the discrimination exhibited is as exact as it is pleasing. This exercise occupies about thirty minutes.

THE TEACHER'S GUIDE AND PARENT'S ASSISTANT.

A semi-monthly publication under the above title is proposed by Mr. John L. Parkhurst, a gentleman of experience in the business of instruction. The work is to appear as soon as the state of the subscription list shall authorise the editor to proceed with his undertaking.

Terms. The work will be published semi-monthly in an 8vo form, and on superior paper. The price to subscribers who pay in advance $ 1.

[The prospectus of the above paper contains many judicious observations, which we shall embrace the first opportunity of laying before our readers.]

NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW.

The last published number of this work contains some very interesting and useful articles on the subject of education. That on 'popular education,' particularly, we hope will have an extensive and a permanent influence on plans of instruction in seminaries of every description, throughout the United States.

It is a circumstance which must be truly gratifying to the friends of improvement in education that a work of the reputation and influence which the Review so deservedly enjoys, is contributing to the advancement of so important a branch of the public interests.

INFANT SCHOOLS IN THE CITY OF NEW-YORK.

A public meeting has been held in the city of New-York, for the purpose of establishing schools for infant children. We hope we shall soon be able to lay before our readers an account of the progress which is made in this important and interesting measure for promoting the moral and physical, as well as intellectual, improvement of the rising population of that city.

NOTICES.

WORKS IN THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.

Pike's System of Arithmetic abridged: designed to facilitate the study of the Science of Numbers, comprehending the most perspicuous and accurate Rules, illustrated by useful Examples.—To which are added appropriate Questions, for the Examination of Scholars; and a short System of Book-Keeping.—By Dudley Leavitt, Teacher of Mathematics and Natural Philosophy: Concord, N. H. 1826. 8vo. pp. 208.

A new Ciphering-Book, adapted to Pike's Arithmetic abridged; containing illustrative notes, a variety of useful Mathematical Tables, &c. with blank pages of fine paper, sufficient for writing down all the more interesting operations. Concord: 1826.

This work has been so universally approved, and for such a number of years received as a standard in its department of education, that it is not necessary to discuss the utility of its rules as a work adapted to the business of instruction. The present form, however, in which it appears with various additions of what is useful in commercial life, and omissions of what is obsolete, possesses many merits. Its divisions are more simple, and more in unison with each other, than those of most other works of the kind. There are more illustrations in the present than in former editions of this work. Every page has a few questions subjoined which will aid the learner both in acquiring its principles, and applying them in the business of life.

There are several other valuable additions to the work. But the most useful of these is the blank Ciphering Book of which the title is given above, and which contains a great deal of valuable introductory matter well arranged.

Pike's Arithmetic modernised and improved, though not so well adapted to the purposes of mental discipline as the works of Colburn, is still a valuable contribution to the department of school books; for in many parts of the country some teachers are still too apt to regard every attempt at improvement as mere innovation. To instructers who adhere to old standards the present edition of Pike will, we have no doubt, prove very acceptable.

A Spelling Book of the English language; or, the American Tutor's Assistant,—intended particularly for the use of Common Schools. The pronunciation being adapted to the much approved principles of Walker.—By Elihu F. Marshall. Concord, N. H. 1826. 12mo. pp. 156.

This spelling book, like several others of which we have lately taken notice, contains many valuable improvements. The chief advantage proposed in this volume is an abstract of Walker's principles of pronunciation, with directions to the teacher for the method of using them in practical exercises. This part of Mr. Marshall's book is one which certainly will be found very useful, and especially to instructers, who have not previously given a systematic attention to pronunciation.

The scholar who uses this spelling book, is furnished, in addition to the usual quantity of reading lessons, with a useful collection of words accented and explained in the form of a dictionary. This part of the book would, we think, be much improved by being altered so far as to contain the meaning of every word which occurs in the spelling columns, and, perhaps, by being limited to these words.

The vocabulary of proper names from the New-Testament is the least successful part of the work. In the etymology of such names particularly there seems to be occasionally a great want either of attention on the part of the printer, or of accuracy on that of the compiler.

BOOKS FOR CHILDREN.

Edgeworth's Harry and Lucy. Parts I. II. III. IV. With the Address to Mothers, Little Dog Trusty, Orange Man, and The Cherry Orchard. Complete in one volume. With wood cuts. Boston, 1826. 18mo. pp. 273.

This little volume, of which mention was made in the intelligence of our last number, is made peculiarly valuable to parents by the insertion of the prefatory Address to Mothers. The book is rendered acceptable at the same time to children, by the number and neatness of the cuts. In this respect the present edition seems to possess a great advantage over most others.

Of the works of Mr. and Miss Edgeworth it is hardly necessary for us to speak. But we should feel gratified, if any remark in our pages, should induce a single parent to add this volume to a juvenile library in which it had not previously had a place.

The Early Lessons, and this portion of them, in particular, may be made, in the hands of an intelligent mother, to furnish more rational amusement as well as instruction, than perhaps any other volume in the English language.

Frank. By Maria Edgeworth. Parts I. II. III. IV. Complete in one volume. Boston, 1826. 18mo. pp. 233.

It is no easy thing to find books adapted to the capacity of children just emerging from infancy; and it is this circumstance which stamps much of its peculiar value on this little volume.

The child to whom this book is read and explained, will be early won to the exercise of attention, to reflection, and to practical habits of mind. All this will be effected, too, without intervals of weariness and yawning; if the mother only takes care to select small portions at a time, and in all cases in which it is in her power, to *show* the child the objects which are described in the book.

Employment, amusement, and instruction, may all be combined in this way, so as to brighten as well as invigorate the infant mind, and whet its appetite for the coming portions of the great banquet of knowledge and improvement, which education is designed to furnish.

ANSWERS TO CORRESPONDENTS.

Received since our last, copies of

The Juvenile Philosopher,—Cobb's Spelling Book,—Goodrich's Geography,—Frost's Questions on Murray's Grammar,—Mrs Taylor's Practical Hints,—and Maternal Solicitude,—Tales of the Bower,—The Knapsac,—Child's Monitor,—and Franklin Primer.

The sketch of a Plan for Self-educating Societies will be inserted as early as possible.

A correspondent (E.H.) who objects to our statements concerning an institution in another State, is reminded that the Journal is pledged as a record of *whatever* is doing in education, in every part of the country, and in every seminary.

No. 1 of Suggestions to Parents, and the Review of Professor Webster's Manual of Chemistry, shall be inserted in our next number.

Typographical error in No. 7, p. 433, line 20th from the bottom: for *writing* read *reciting*.

AMERICAN

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WILDERSPIN ON THE EDUCATION OF INFANTS.

Exercise.

As so much has been written on the necessity of proper exercise for children, one would have thought it absolutely unnecessary for me to have noticed the subject. But, 'custom, that plague of wise men, and idol of others,' is not so easily changed; hence a custom, although it may be quite contrary to reason, must be rigidly adhered to, for no other reason than because it is a custom. I trust, however, the time is fast approaching when every thing connected with the training and educating of the rising generation, will undergo a thorough revision, and that the legislative body will not think it beneath their notice to attend to this subject. It is not uncommon to see men take horses and dogs out for an airing, and give them exercise; but it is very uncommon to see a governess or master giving their pupils exercise.—It is true that we may sometimes see the children of boarding-schools taking a little exercise, but not nearly so much as they ought; and when they do, it is turned to no other account than merely for the walk. So much are they rivetted to books, and confined to rooms, that it has never entered the mind of many masters to teach by *things* instead of books; and yet no one will deny, that the wide world furnishes plenty of lessons, and that many of the objects in nature would prove the best of *books*, if they were but read—but no, this is not the *custom*. Give a child a book into his hand, and let him addle his brain over it for two or three hours; and if he does not learn his task set him down for a *blockhead:* never mind whether he understands the subject. If he does not learn his task, flog him. No questions allowed by any means. Nothing can be greater impertinence, than for children to desire explanation: let them find it out, as well as they can. This is part of the old system; but will

it be argued that this is the best method to cultivate and treat the *human* mind? Of all the causes which conspire to render the life of man short and miserable, no one has greater influence than the want of proper exercise. Healthy parents, wholesome food, and proper clothing, will avail little where exercise is neglected. Sufficient exercise will counterbalance several defects in nursing; but nothing can supply the want of it: it is absolutely necessary to the health, the growth, and the strength of children.

The desire of exercise is coeval with life itself. Were this principle attended to, many diseases might be prevented; but while indolence and sedentary employments prevent two thirds of mankind from either taking sufficient exercise themselves, or giving it to their children, what have we to expect, but diseases and deformity among their offspring? The rickets, a disease which is very destructive to children, has greatly increased in Britain, since manufactures began to flourish, and people, attracted by the love of gain, left the country to follow sedentary employments in great towns. It is amongst these people that this disease chiefly prevails, and not only deforms, but kills many of their offspring.

The conduct of other young animals shows the propriety of giving exercise to children. Every other animal makes use of its organs of motion, as soon as it can; and many of them, when under no necessity of moving in quest of food, cannot be restrained without force. This is evidently the case with the calf, the lamb, and most other young animals. If these creatures were not permitted to frisk about, and take exercise, they would soon die, or become diseased. The same inclination appears very early in the human species; but as they are not able to take exercise themselves, it is the business of their parents and nurses to assist them. Children may be exercised in various ways, and the method we take to exercise them is shown in other parts of this work. It is a pity that men should be so inattentive to this matter: their negligence is one reason why females know so little of it. Women will ever be desirous to excel in such accomplishments as recommend them to the other sex; but men generally keep at such a distance from even the smallest acquaintance with the affairs of the nursery, that many would reckon it an affront were they supposed to know anything of them. Not so, however, with the kennel or the stables; a gentleman of the first rank is not ashamed to give directions concerning the management of his dogs or horses, yet would blush were he surprised in performing the same office for that being who is to be the heir of his fortunes, and the future hopes of his country.

'Arguments to show the importance of exercise might be drawn from every part of the animal economy. Without exercise, the circulation of the blood cannot be properly carried on, nor the

different secretions duly performed: without exercise the fluids cannot be properly prepared, nor the solids rendered strong or firm. The action of the heart, the motion of the lungs, and all the vital functions, are greatly assisted by exercise. But to point out the manner in which these effects are produced, would lead us into the economy of the human body, which is not our object. We shall therefore only add, that when exercise is neglected, none of the animal functions can be duly performed; and when this is the case, the whole constitution must go to wreck. A good constitution ought certainly to be our first object in the management of children. It lays a foundation for their being useful and happy in life; and whoever neglects it, not only fails in his duty to his offspring, but to society.

I am sorry to say, that many men have considered it quite beneath their notice, to have any thing to do with infant children, and consequently have permitted their children to be sent to what are *called* schools, and there to be placed on seats for hours, under the care of some person, who, in many cases, is no more fit to teach and instruct children, than I am fit to be a monarch. If any man will take his children into his garden or fields, and encourage them to ask questions on the glories, works, and first great Cause of nature, he will soon find out the importance of the thing, and the necessity of his own mind being well cultivated, to be enabled to answer their questions. Whatever men may think of this subject, they will find, ultimately, that the rising generation have never had a fair chance of becoming wise; because they have not had proper exercise, either for their minds or bodies.

While this is the case, let us not complain of weak and thoughtless children, or of weak and thoughtless servants; for the former owe it to the neglect of their parents and the public; and the latter to their not having been taught to think at all.

Thinking.

As I have said a few words on the necessity of proper bodily exercise for children, it may not be amiss to make some remarks on the subject of mental exercise.

Now, thinking, like every thing else, may be abused; and therefore there is the greater necessity for choosing masters for infant schools, possessing some degree of talent, and who are, in some measure, acquainted with the human mind; otherwise they may do that which was never intended, and thereby abuse the best of powers. For instance:—Intense thinking is so destructive to health, that few instances can be produced of studious persons who are strong and healthy. Hard study always implies a sedentary life; and when intense thinking is joined to the want of exercise, the conse-

quences must be bad. We have frequently known, even a few months of close application to study ruin an excellent constitution, by inducing a train of nervous complaints, which could never be removed. Man is evidently not formed for continual thought, any more than for continual action, and would as soon be worn out by the one, as by the other. So great is the power of the mind over the body, that by its influence all the vital motions may be accelerated or retarded to almost any degree.

Thus cheerfulness and mirth quicken the circulation, and promote all the secretions; whereas sadness and profound thought never fail to retard them. Hence it would appear, that even a degree of thoughtlessness is necessary to health. Indeed, the perpetual thinker seldom enjoys either health or spirits; while the person who can hardly be said to think at all, generally enjoys both. Perpetual thinkers, as they are called, seldom think long. In a few years they generally become quite stupid, and exhibit a melancholy proof how readily the greatest blessings may be abused. Thinking, like every thing else, when carried to extreme, becomes injurious; and therefore those who have charge of children must endeavor not to go into the opposite extreme, but allow the children proper recreation, that they may return to thinking the better, and not by endeavoring to do too much, deprive themselves of the power of doing any thing. It will be seen, therefore, that discretion is a very essential quality in a master; for, if instruction be not managed with judgement, the child becomes like a ship without a rudder, or like fancy without judgement, all sail and no ballast.

Truth.

There is nothing so delightful as the hearing and speaking of truth. For this reason there is no conversation so agreeable as that of the man of integrity who hears without any design to betray, and speaks without any intention to deceive: this admitted, we should strive to our utmost to induce children to speak the truth. But our success, in a great measure, will depend on the means we take to accomplish that end. I know that many children are frightened into falsehood by the injudicious methods adopted by those persons who have the care of them. I have known a mother promise her child forgiveness, if it would speak the truth, and, after having obtained confession, has broken her promise. A child, once treated in this manner, will naturally be guarded against a second such deception. I have known others who would pretend not to punish the child for confession, but for first denying it, and afterwards confessing. I think that children should not be punished on any account after having been promised forgiveness; truth being of too great importance to be thus trifled with; and we cannot wonder if

it is lightly esteemed by children, after the example is set by their parents. Having had several thousand children pass through my hands, it has furnished me with opportunities of observing the bias of the infant mind; and I must say, that I have not found children so inclined to evil and falsehood as I had heretofore imagined, neither so corrupt as is generally supposed. For if our dealings are fair and honorable with children, we may expect from them much better things. I do believe, when we have ascertained the proper method of treating children, it will be found that they came from the hands of their Creator in a much better state than we generally suppose, and that they are not so prone to vice, cruelty, lying, and many other evils, as is generally believed; and instead of snarling at each other like dogs, I find they will be as kind and good natured to each other as any race of beings on earth; for many of their faults are often committed rather through ignorance than intention. These things, therefore, have convinced me of the necessity and importance of a thorough change in the management of children from first to last, and instead of being almost the last thing thought of by our legislators, it should be the first.

Use of Pictures in Infant Schools.

We have twelve pictures in Natural History, each picture having a variety of quadrupeds, birds, fishes, and flowers. The first thing we do is to teach the children the names of the different things, then to distinguish them by their forms, and lastly, they are questioned on them as follows:—If the animal is a horse, we put the pointer to it, and say,

What is this? *A.* A picture of a horse. *Q.* What is the use of the horse? *A.* To draw carts, coaches, wagons, drays, fire-engines caravans, the plough and harrow, and boats on the canals, and anything that their masters want them. *Q.* Will they carry as well as draw? *A.* Yes, they will carry a lady or gentleman on their backs, a sack of corn, or paniers, or even little children, but they must not hit them hard, if they do they will fall off their backs; besides it is very cruel to beat them. *Q.* What is the difference between carrying and drawing? *A.* To carry is when they have the whole weight on their backs, but to draw is when they pull any thing along. *Q.* Is there any difference between those horses that carry, and those horses that draw? *A.* Yes; the horses that draw carts, drays,coal-wagons, stage-wagons,and other heavy things, are stouter and much larger, and stronger than those that carry on the saddle, and are called draught horses. *Q.* Where do the draught horses come from? *A.* The largest come from Leicestershire, and some come from Suffolk, which are very strong, and are called Suffolk punches. *Q.* Where do the best saddle horses come from? *A.*

They came at first from Arabia, the place in which the camel is so useful; but now it is considered that those are as good which are bred in England. *Q.* What do they call a horse when he is young? *A.* Foal, or a young colt. *Q.* Will he carry and draw while he is young? *A.* Not until he is taught, which is called breaking of him in. *Q.* And when he is broken in, is he very useful? *A.* Yes; and please, sir, we hope to be more useful when we are properly taught? *Q.* What do you mean by being properly taught? *A.* When we have as much trouble taken with us as the horses and dogs have taken with them. *Q.* Why you give me a great deal of trouble, and yet I endeavor to teach you. *A.* Yes, Sir, but before infant schools were established, little children like us were running the streets.* *Q.* But you ought to be good children if you do run the streets. *A.* Please sir, there is nobody to tell us how,† and if the man did not teach the horse, he would not know how to do his work.

Here we observe to the children, that as this animal is so useful to mankind, it should be treated with kindness. And having questioned them as to the difference between a cart and a coach, and satisfied ourselves that they understand the things that are mentioned, we close, by asking them what is the use of the horse after he is dead, to which the children reply, that its flesh is eaten by other animals, (naming them;) and that its skin is put into pits, with oak bark, which is called tanning; and that when it is tanned it is called leather; and leather is made into shoes to keep the feet warm and dry, and that we are indebted to the animals for many things that we both eat and wear, and above all to the great God for every thing that we possess. I cannot help thinking that if this plan were more generally adopted, in all schools, we should not have so many persons ascribing every thing to blind chance, when all nature exhibits a God, who guides, protects, and continually preserves the whole.

We also examine the children concerning that ill-treated animal, the ass, and contrast it with the beautiful external appearance of the zebra; taking care to warn the children not to judge of things by their outward appearance, which the world in general are too apt to do, but to judge of things by their uses, and of men by their general character and conduct. After having examined the children concerning the animals that are most familiar to us, such as the sheep, the cow, the dog, and others of a similar kind, we proceed to foreign animals, such as the camel, the elephant, the tiger, the lion, &c. &c. In describing the use of the camel and the elephant,

* This answer was given by a child five years of age.

† This answer was given by a child of six years of age.

there is a fine field to open the understandings of the children, by stating how useful the camel is in the deserts of Arabia; how much it can carry; how long it can go without water; and the reason it can go without water longer than most other animals: how much the elephant can carry; what use it make of its trunk, &c. All these things will assist the thinking powers of children, and enlarge their understandings, if managed carefully. We also contrast the beautiful appearance of the tiger with its cruel and blood thirsty disposition, and endeavor to show these men and women in embryo, that it is a dangerous plan to judge of things by appearances, but that there is a more correct way of judging, which forms a part of the business of education. But working people consider that education consists merely in the knowledge of letters, and perhaps, they are not the only persons who think so; at all events, few attempt to go beyond this with young children, for whom I am attempting to legislate. I may observe further, that all those persons who have visited the school, as far as I have been able to collect, have approved of the plan; and I do sincerely hope, that when the British public are made acquainted with the good that is doing, and is likely to be done, by this mode of teaching infants, many will come forward and assist in establishing similar schools; not that I wish it to be understood that I hold up the school that I have charge of as a model for all others. No: when men of talent and penetration take up the subject, which I hope they will, we shall no doubt have much more light thrown upon it; which probably will be the means of establishing a system upon truly scientific principles. I have hitherto endeavored to act as near to nature as possible, without straining the thinking powers of children beyond their capacities; but should any better plan appear, I will most cheerfully (if permitted) adopt it.

With these pictures the children are highly delighted, and of their own accord, require an explanation of the subjects. Nay, they will even ask questions that will puzzle the teacher to answer; and although there is in some minds such a natural barrenness, that, like the sands of Arabia, they are never to be cultivated or improved, yet I can safely say, that I never knew a child who did not like the pictures; and as soon as I have done explaining one, it it always, 'Please sir, may we learn this? Please teacher, may we learn that?' In short, I find that I am generally tired before the children; for instead of having to apply any magisterial severity, they are petitioning to learn; and this mode of teaching possesses an advantage over every other, because it does not interfere with any religious opinion, there being no body of christians that I know or ever heard of, who would object to the facts recorded in the Bible, being thus elucidated by pictures. Thus a ground-work

may be laid, not only of natural history, but of sacred history also; for the objects being before the children's eyes, they can, in some degree, comprehend them, and store them in their memories. Indeed, there is such attraction in pictures, that you can scarcely pass a picture shop in London, without seeing a number of grown persons around the windows, gazing at them. When pictures were first introduced into the school, the children told their parents; many of whom came and asked permission to see them; and although the plates are very common, I observed a degree of attention and reverence in the parents, scarcely to be expected, and especially from those who could not read.

By this plan, then, the reader will perceive, that the way may be paved, if I may be allowed the expression, almost to insure a desire in the children to read the Bible when they are able, and by their previous knowledge of the many leading facts contained therein, it is to be hoped that most of them will understand what they read, and consequently read day after day with increased delight, until they have acquired such a love, veneration, and esteem for the sacred writings, as all the powers of evil will never be able to eradicate.

It is generally the case, that what we have always with us, becomes so familiar, that we set little store by it; but on being deprived of it for a time, we then set a greater value on it: and I have found this to be the case with the children. If the pictures be exposed all at once, and at all times, then there would be such a multiplicity of objects before the eyes of the children, that their attention would not be fixed by any of them; they would look at them all, at first, with wonder and surprise, but in a short time the pictures would cease to attract notice; and, consequently, the children would think no more of them than they would of the paper that covers the room. To prevent this, and to excite a desire for information, it is always necessary to keep some behind, and to let very few objects appear at one time. When the children understand, in some measure, the subjects before them; these may be replaced by others, and so on successively, until the whole have been seen.

The human mind is susceptible of such an infinite variety, that it is continually seeking for new objects; and even the most beautiful, by being placed before our eyes too frequently, loses almost all its attraction, and ceases to claim our notice. Therefore, although the children are fond of this mode of teaching, unless it be managed with a proper degree of care, with a view to please as well as edify, the children will be cloyed by having too much at once; and whatever good the teacher may wish to do for his little

pupils, unless he particularly attend to this part of the subject, he will most certainly defeat his own objects.

The following anecdote furnishes a striking instance of the good that may result from the use of pictures.

A little boy, the subject of the following anecdote, being six years of age, and forward in his learning, I considered him fit to be sent to another school, and sent word to the parents accordingly. The father came immediately, and said, he hoped I would keep him until he was seven years of age: adding, that he had many reasons for making the request. I told him that the design of the institution was to take such children as no other school would admit, and as his child had arrived at the age of six, he would be received into the National School; and as we had a number of applications to admit children much younger, I could not grant his request. He then said, "I understand that you make use of pictures in the school, and I have good reason to approve of them; for," said he, "you must know, that I have a large Bible in the house, Matthew Henry's, which was left me by my deceased mother; but like many more, I never looked into it, but kept it merely for show. The child, of course, was forbidden to open it, for fear of its being spoiled; but still he was continually asking me to read in it, and I as continually denied him. Indeed I had imbibed many unfavorable impressions concerning this book, and had no inclination to read it; and I was not very anxious that the child should. However, the child was not to be put off, although several times I gave him a box on the ear for worrying me; yet notwithstanding this, the child would frequently ask me to read it, when he thought I was in a good humor; and at last I complied with his wishes. 'Please, father,' said the child, 'will you read about Solomon's wise judgement?' I don't know where to find it, was the reply. 'Then,' says the child, 'I will tell you: it is in the third chapter of the first book of kings.' I looked as the child directed, and found it, and read it to him. Having done so, I was about to shut up the book; which the child perceiving, says, 'now, please, father, will you read about Lazarus raised from the dead?' which was done; and in short," says the father, "he kept me at it for at least two hours that night, and completely tired me out, for there was no getting rid of him. The next night he renewed the application, with 'please, father, will you read about Joseph and his brethren?' and he could always tell me where it was to be found. Indeed, he was not contented with my reading it, but would get me into many difficulties, by asking me to explain that which I knew nothing about; and if I said I could not tell him, he would tell me that I ought to go to church, for his master had told him, that that was

the place to learn more about it, and added, 'and I will go with you, father.' In short, he told me every picture you had in your school, and kept me so well at it, that I really got into the habit of *reading for myself*, with some degree of delight; this, therefore, is one of the reasons why I wish the child to remain in the school." A short time afterwards, the mother called on me, and told me, that none could be happier than she, for there was so much alteration in her husband for the better, that she could scarcely believe him to be the same man: that instead of being in the skittle-ground, in the evening, spending his money, and getting tipsy, he was reading at home to her and his children, and the money that used to go for gambling, was now going to buy books, with which, in conjunction with the Bible, they were greatly delighted, and afforded both him and them a great deal of pleasure and profit; that her object in calling was once more to return thanks to Mr. Wilson, and myself, for the great benefit that had accrued to the family, through the child being in the Infant School. Here we see that a whole family were made comfortable, and called to a sense of religion and duty, by the instrumentality of a child of six years of age; for I have made inquiries, and found that the whole family attend a place of worship, and that their character will bear the strictest investigation.

ANECDOTES OF INFANTS.

The Boy and the triangle.

One day some visiters requested I would call out a class of the children to be examined; and having so done, I asked the visiters in what they would wish the children to be examined, at the same time stating that they might hear the children examined in Natural History, Scriptural History, Arithmetic, Spelling, Geography, or Geometry. They chose the latter; and I proceeded to examine the children accordingly, and began with straight lines. Having, as I supposed, continued half an hour in this examination, we were proceeding to enter into particulars respecting triangles: and having discoursed on the difference between isoceles triangles, and scalene triangles, I observed that an acute isoceles triangle had all its angles acute, and proceeded to observe that a right angle scalene triangle had all its angles acute. The children immediately began to laugh, for which I was at a loss to account, and told them of the impropriety of laughing at me. One of the children immediately replied, 'Please, sir, do you know what we were laughing at?' I replied in the negative. 'Then, sir,' says the boy, 'I will tell you. Please, sir, you have made a blunder.' I, thinking I had not, proceeded to defend myself, when the children replied, 'Please, sir, you convict yourself.' I replied, 'How so?'

'Why,' say the children, 'you said a right angle triangle had one right angle, and that all its angles are acute. If it has one right angle, how can all its angles be acute?' I soon perceived the children were right, and that I was wrong. Here, then, the reader may perceive the fruits of teaching children to think, inasmuch that children of six years of age and under were able to refute their tutor. If children had been taught to think many years ago, error would have been much easier detected; and its baneful influence would not have had that effect upon society which at this day unfortunately we are obliged to witness.

At another time I was lecturing the children in the gallery on the subject of cruelty to animals; when one of the little children observed, 'Please, sir, my big brother catches the poor flies and then sticks a pin through them, and makes them draw the pin along the table.' This afforded me an excellent opportunity of appealing to their feelings on the enormity of this offence; and among other things I observed that if the poor fly had been gifted with powers of speech like their own, it probably would have exclaimed, *while dead*, as follows:—'You naughty child, how can you think of torturing me so, is there not room enough in the world for you and me? Did I ever do you any harm? Does it do you any good to put me in such pain? Why do you do it, you are big enough to know better? How would you like a man to run a piece of wire through your body, and make you draw things about, would you not cry at the pain? Go, then, you wicked boy, and learn to leave off such cruel actions.' Having finished, one of the children replied, 'How can any thing speak if it is dead?' 'Why,' said I, 'supposing it could speak.' 'You meant to say, sir, *dying*, instead of *dead*.'—I had purposely misused a word, and the children being taught to think, easily detected it.

The dutiful child; or, prompt obedience.

One of the children happened to kick another: the injured party complained to the person who then had the charge of the school; saying, 'Please, sir, this boy kicked me.' It being time for the children to leave school, the master waved his hand towards the gate through which the children pass, saying, at the same time, 'Kick away;' meaning that the complainant was to go home. The complainant returned to the other child, and began kicking him, and received some kicks himself. Mr. Greaves our secretary, who was present, seeing two children kicking each other, very naturally inquired the reason. 'Please, sir,' replied the children, 'Master told us!' 'Master told you,' says Mr. Greaves, 'that cannot be: I'll ask him.' He accordingly inquired into the truth of the affair, and received for answer, 'certainly not.' 'Yes,' says the child, 'you did, sir. Did I not tell you just now that a boy kicked me?'

'Yes,' says the master, 'you did.' 'Then, please, sir,' says the child, 'you told me to go and kick away!' The master immediately recollected he had said so. This fact shows how improper it is to say one thing to a child, and mean another. These children were under the influence of obedience, *and in the light of truth;* and being in that light they could see from no other, and very naturally concluded the master meant what he had said.

The Boy and the paper boat.

One day, when the children were assembled in the gallery, I, having none of their usual lessons at hand, took from my pocket a piece of paper, and promised them that if they would answer me every question I put concerning the paper, I would at last make a paper boat. I proceeded in the following manner:—'What is this?' 'What colour?' 'What is its use?' 'How made?' 'What made of?' &c. These questions being answered according to their different views, and having folded it into a variety of forms, and obtained their ideas upon such forms, I proceeded to fulfil my promise of forming it into the shape of a boat; and the children seeing me at a loss, exclaimed, 'Please, sir, you can't do it;' which proved a fact, as I had forgotten the plan, and was obliged to make the confession. 'Then, sir,' rejoined one of the boys, 'you should not have promised.'

In the course of my observations I had enjoined the children to make all possible use of their thinking powers; but it appears I had at the same time forgotten to make use of my own, and consequently was betrayed into a promise which I was not able to perform.

ACADEMICAL EDUCATION IN ENGLAND.

[The following paragraphs are extracted from an able and interesting article in the last republished number of the Edinburgh Review. The writer's ideas are highly valuable, when taken in connection with the progress of public opinion on the subject of education; and the strictly practical character of the London University, gives it a peculiar interest to Americans. Institutions like that in London, are those which the state of society on this side the Atlantic, seems to require; and the colleges and other literary institutions in the United States, might, we think, be benefitted by assimilating, in some respects, to an establishment so well adapted to preparation for the actual business of life.

In presenting to our readers the reviewer's thoughts on academical education, we have retrenched those paragraphs which the

tone of party bitterness renders unsuitable for insertion in a work like ours; and which, though they contain much forcible writing, would not, in this country, be proper instruments to wield in the cause of improvement.]

Every person, we presume, will acknowledge, that to establish an academic system on immutable principles, would be the height of absurdity. Every year sees the empire of science enlarged by the acquisition of some new province, or improved by the construction of some easier road. Surely the change which daily takes place in the state of knowledge, ought to be accompanied by a corresponding change in the method of instruction. In many cases the rude and imperfect works of early speculators ought to give place to the more complete and luminous performances of those who succeed them. Even the comparative value of languages is subject to great fluctuations. The same tongue which at one period may be richer than any other in valuable works, may, some centuries after, be poorer than any. That, while such revolutions take place, education ought to remain unchanged, is a proposition too absurd to be maintained for a moment.

If it be desirable that education should, by a gradual and constant change, adapt itself to the circumstances of every generation, how is this object to be secured? We answer—only by perfect freedom of competition. Under such a system, every possible exigence would be met. Whatever language, whatever art, whatever science, it might at any time be useful to know, *that* men would surely learn, and would as surely find instructers to teach. The professor who should persist in devoting his attention to branches of knowledge which had become useless, would soon be deserted by his pupils. There would be as much of every sort of information as would afford profit and pleasure to the possessor,—and no more.

But the riches and the franchises of our Universities prevent this salutary rivalry from taking place. In its stead is introduced an unnatural system of premiums, prohibitions, and apprenticeships. Enormous bounties are lavished on particular acquirements; and, in consequence, there is among our youth a glut of Greek, Latin, and Mathematics, and a lamentable scarcity of every thing else.

We are by no means inclined to depreciate the studies which are encouraged at Oxford and Cambridge. We should reprobate with the same severity a system under which a like exclusive protection should be extended to French or Spanish, Chemistry or Mineralogy, Metaphysics or Political Economy. Some of these

branches of knowledge are very important. But they may not always be equally important. Five hundred years hence, the Burmese language may contain the most valuable books in the world. Sciences, for which there is now no name, and of which the first rudiments are still undiscovered, may then be in the greatest demand. Our objection is to the principle. We abhor intellectual perpetuities. A chartered and endowed college, strong in its wealth and in its degrees, does not find it necessary to teach what is useful; because it can pay men to learn what is useless. Every fashion which was in vogue at the time of its foundation, enters into its constitution and partakes of its immortality. Its abuses savor of the reality, and its prejudices vest in mortmain with its lands. In the present instance, the consequences are notorious. We every day see clever men of four and five-and-twenty, loaded with academical honors and rewards,—scholarships, fellowships, whole cabinets of medals, whole shelves of prize books,—enter into life with their education still to begin, unacquainted with the history, the literature, we might almost say, the language of their country, unacquainted with the first principles of the laws under which they live, unacquainted with the very rudiments of moral and political science!. Who will deny that this is the state of things? Or who will venture to defend it?

This is no new complaint. Long before society had so far outstripped the colleges in the career of improvement as it has since done, the evil was noticed and traced to its true cause, by that great philosopher who most accurately mapped all the regions of science, and furnished the human intellect with its most complete Itinerary. 'It is not to be forgotten,' says Lord Bacon, 'that the dedicating of foundations and donations to professory learning, hath not only had a malign influence upon the growth of sciences, but hath also been prejudicial to states and governments: For hence it proceedeth, that princes find a solitude in respect of able men to serve them in causes of state, *because there is no education collegiate which is* FREE, where such as were so disposed might give themselves to histories, modern languages, books of policy and civil discourse, and other like enablements unto causes of state.'* The warmest admirers of the present system will hardly deny, that, if this was an evil in the sixteenth century, it must be a much greater evil in the nineteenth. The literature of Greece and Rome is now what it was then. That of every modern language has received considerable accessions. And surely, 'books of policy and civil discourse' are as important to an English gentleman of the present day, as they could be to a subject of James the First.

*Advancement of Learning, Book II.

We repeat, that we are not disparaging either the dead languages or the exact sciences. We only say, that if they are useful they will not need peculiar encouragement, and that, if they are useless, they ought not to receive it. Those who maintain that the present system is necessary to promote the study of classical and mathematical knowledge, are the persons who really depreciate those pursuits. They do in fact declare, by implication, that neither amusement nor profit is to be derived from them, and that no man has any motive to employ his time upon them, unless he expects that they may help him to a fellowship.

The utility of mathematical knowledge is felt in every part of the system of life, and acknowledged by every rational man. But does it therefore follow, that people ought to be paid to acquire it. A scarcity of persons capable of making almanacs and measuring land, is as little to be apprehended as a scarcity of blacksmiths. In fact, very few of our academical mathematicians turn their knowledge to such practical purposes. There are many wranglers who have never touched a quadrant. What peculiar title then has the mere speculative knowledge of mathematical truth to such costly remuneration? The answer is well known. It makes men good reasoners: it habituates them to strict accuracy in drawing inferences. In this statement there is unquestionably some truth. A man who understands the nature of mathematical reasoning, the closest of all kinds of reasoning, is likely to reason better than another on points not mathematical, as a man who can dance generally walks better than a man who cannot. But no people walk so ill as dancing-masters, and no people reason so ill as mere mathematicians. They are accustomed to look only for one species of evidence; a species of evidence of which the transactions of life do not admit. When they come from certainties to probabilities, from a syllogism to a witness, their superiority is at an end. They resemble a man who, never having seen any object which was not either black or white, should be required to discriminate between two near shades of grey. Hence, on questions of religion, policy, or common life, we perpetually see these boasted demonstrators either extravagantly credulous, or extravagantly sceptical. That the science is a necessary ingredient in a liberal education, we admit. But it is only an ingredient, and an ingredient which is peculiarly dangerous, unless diluted by a large admixture of others. To encourage it by such rewards as are bestowed at Cambridge, is to make the occasional tonic of the mind its morning and evening nutriment.

The partisans of classical literature are both more numerous and more enthusiastic than the mathematicians; and the ignorant violence with which their cause has sometimes been assailed, has

added to its popularity. On this subject we are sure that we are at least impartial judges. We feel the warmest admiration for the great remains of antiquity. We gratefully acknowledge the benefits which mankind has owed to them. But we would no more suffer a pernicious system to be protected by the reverence which is due to them, than we would show our reverence for a saint by erecting his shrine into a sanctuary for criminals.

An eloquent scholar has said, that ancient literature was the ark in which all the civilisation of the world was preserved during the deluge of barbarism. We confess it. But we do not read that Noah thought himself bound to live in the ark after the deluge had subsided. When our ancestors first began to consider the study of the classics as the principal part of education, little or nothing worth reading was to be found in any modern language. Circumstances have confessedly changed. Is it not possible that a change of system may be desirable?

Our opinion of the Latin tongue will, we fear, be considered heretical. We cannot but think that its vocabulary is miserably poor, and its mechanism deficient, both in power and precision. The want of a definite article, and of a distinction between the preterite and the aorist tenses, are two defects which are alone sufficient to place it below any other language with which we are acquainted. In its most flourishing era it was reproached with poverty of expression. Cicero, indeed, was induced, by his patriotic feelings to deny the charge. But the perpetual recurrence of Greek words in his most hurried and familiar letters, and the frequent use which he is compelled to make of them in spite of all his exertions to avoid them, in his philosophical works, fully prove that even this great master of the Latin tongue felt the evil which he labored to conceal from others.

We do not think much better of the writers, as a body, than of the language. The literature of Rome was born old. All the signs of decrepitude were on it in the cradle. We look in vain for the sweet lisp and the graceful wildness of an infant dialect. We look in vain for a single great creative mind,—for a Homer or a Dante, a Shakespeare, or a Cervantes. In their place we have a crowd of fourth-rate and fifth-rate authors, translators, and imitators without end. The rich heritage of Grecian philosophy and poetry was fatal to the Romans. They would have acquired more wealth, if they had succeeded to less. Instead of accumulating fresh intellectual treasures, they contented themselves with enjoying, disposing in new forms, or impairing by an injudicious management, those which they took by descent. Hence, in most of their works, there is scarcely any thing spontaneous and racy, scarcely any originality in the thoughts, scarcely any idiom in the

style. Their poetry tastes of the hot-house. It is transplanted from Greece, with the earth of Pindus clinging round its roots. It is nursed in careful seclusion from the Italian air. The gardeners are often skilful; but the fruit is almost always sickly. One hardy and prickly shrub, of genuine Latin growth, must indeed be excepted. Satire was the only indigenous produce of Roman talent; and, in our judgement, by far the best.

We are often told the Latin language is more strictly grammatical than the English; and that it is therefore necessary to study it, in order to speak English with elegance and accuracy. This is one of those remarks which are repeated till they pass into axioms, only because they have so little meaning, that nobody thinks it worth while to refute them at their first appearance. If those who say that the Latin language is more strictly grammatical than the English, mean only that it is more regular, that there are fewer exceptions to its general laws of derivation, inflection, and construction, we grant it. This is, at least for the purposes of the orator and the poet, rather a defect than a merit; but be it merit or defect, it can in no possible way facilitate the acquisition of any other language. It would be about as resonable to say, that the simplicity of the Code Napoleon renders the study of the laws of England easier than formerly. If it be meant, that the Latin language is formed in more strict accordance with the general principles of grammar than the English, that is to say, that the relations which words bear to each other are more strictly analogous to the relations between the ideas which they represent in Latin than in English, we venture to doubt the fact. We are quite sure, that not one in ten thousand of those who repeat the hackneyed remark on which we are commenting, have ever considered whether there be any principles of grammar whatever, anterior to positive enactment,—any solecism which is a *malum in se*, as distinct from a *malum prohibitum*. Or, if we suppose that there exist such principles, is not the circumstance, that a particular rule is found in one language and not in another, a sufficient proof that it is not one of those principles? That a man who knows Latin is likely to know English better than one who does not, we do not dispute. But this advantage is not peculiar to the study of Latin. Every language throws light on every other. There is not a single foreign tongue which will not suggest to a man of sense some new considerations respecting his own. We acknowledge, too, that the great body of our educated countrymen learn to grammaticise their English by means of their Latin. This, however, proves, not the usefulness of their Latin, but the folly of their other instructers. Instead of being a vindication of the present system of education, it is a high charge against it. A man who thinks the knowledge of Latin es-

sential to the purity of English diction, either has never conversed with an accomplished woman, or does not deserve to have conversed with her. We are sure, that all persons who are in the habit of hearing public speaking must have observed, that the orators who are fondest of quoting Latin, are by no means the most scrupulous about marring their native tongue. We could mention several members of parliament, who never fail to usher in their scraps of Horace and Juvenal with half a dozen false concords.

The Latin language is principally valuable as an introduction to the Greek—the insignificant portico of a most chaste and majestic fabric. On this subject, our confession of faith will, we trust, be approved by the most orthodox scholar. We cannot refuse our admiration to that most wonderful and perfect machine of human thought, to the flexibility, the harmony, the gigantic power, the exquisite delicacy, the infinite wealth of words, the incomparable felicity of expression, in which are united the energy of the English, the neatness of the French, the sweet and infantine simplicity of the Tuscan. Of all dialects, it is the best fitted for the purposes both of science and of elegant literature. The philosophical vocabularies of ancient Rome, and of modern Europe, have been derived from that of Athens. Yet none of the imitations has ever approached the richness and precision of the original. It traces with ease distinctions so subtle, as to be lost in every other language. It draws lines where all the other instruments of the reason only make blots. Nor is it less distinguished by the facilities which it affords to the poet. There are pages even in the Greek dictionaries over which it is impossible to glance without delight. Every word suggests some pleasant or striking image, which, wholly unconnected as it is with that which precedes or that which follows, gives the same sort of pleasure with that which we derive from reading the Adonais of poor Shelley, or from looking at those elegant though unmeaning friezes, in which the eye wanders along a line of beautiful faces, graceful draperies, stags, chariots, altars, and garlands. The literature is not unworthy of the language. It may boast of four poets of the very first order, Homer, Æschylus, Sophocles, and Aristophanes,—of Demosthenes, the greatest of orators—of Aristotle, who is perhaps entitled to the same rank among philosophers, and of Plato, who, if not the most satisfactory of philosophers, is at least the most fascinating. These are the great names of Greece; and to these is to be added a long list of ingenious moralists, wits, and rhetoricians, of poets who, in the lower departments of their art, deserve the greatest praise, and of historians who, at least in the talent of narration, have never been equalled.

It was justly said by the Emperor Charles the Fifth, that to learn a new language was to acquire a new soul. He who is acquainted only with the writers of his native tongue, is in perpetual danger of confounding what is accidental with what is essential, and of supposing that tastes and habits of thought, which belong only to his own age and country, are inseparable from the nature of man. Initiated into foreign literature, he finds that principles of politics and morals, directly contrary to those which he has hitherto supposed to be unquestionable,—because he never heard them questioned,—have been held by large and enlightened communities; that feelings, which are so universal among his contemporaries, that he had supposed them instinctive, have been unknown to whole generations; that images, which have never failed to excite the ridicule of those among whom he has lived, have been thought sublime by millions. He thus loses that Chinese cast of mind, that stupid contempt for every thing beyond the walls of his celestial empire, which was the effect of his former ignorance. New associations take place among his ideas. He doubts where he formerly dogmatised. He tolerates where he formerly execrated. He ceases to confound that which is universal and eternal in human passions and opinions with that which is local and temporary. This is one of the most useful effects which results from studying the literature of other countries; and it is one which the remains of Greece, composed at a remote period, and in a state of society widely different from our own, are peculiarly calculated to produce.

But though we are sensible that great advantages may be derived from the study of the Greek language, we think that they may be purchased at too high a price. And we think that seven or eight years of the life of a man who is to enter into active life at two or three and-twenty, is too high a price. Those are bad economists who look only to the excellence of the article for which they are bargaining, and never ask about the cost. The cost, in the present instance, is too often the whole of that invaluable portion of time during which a fund of intellectual pleasure is to be stored up, and the foundations of wisdom and usefulness laid. No person doubts that much knowledge may be obtained from the classics. It is equally certain that much gold may be found in Spain. But it by no means necessarily follows, that it is wise to work the Spanish mines, or to learn the ancient languages. Before the voyage of Columbus, Spain supplied all Europe with the precious metals. The discovery of America changed the state of things. New mines were found, from which gold could be procured in greater plenty, and with less labor. The old works were therefore abandoned—it being manifest, that those who persisted in laying out capital on them would be undersold and ruined. A new world of

literature and science has also been discovered. New veins of intellectual wealth have been laid open. But a monstrous system of bounties and prohibitions compels us still to go on delving for a few glittering grains in the dark and laborious shaft of antiquity, instead of penetrating a district which would reward a less painful search with a more lucrative return. If, after the conquest of Peru, Spain had enacted that, in order to enable the old mines to maintain a competition against the new, a hundred pistoles should be given to every person who should extract an ounce of gold from them, the parallel would be complete.

We will admit that the Greek language is a more valuable language, than the French, the Italian, or the Spanish. But whether it be more valuable than all the three together, may be doubted; and that all the three may be acquired in less than half the time in which it is possible to become thoroughly acquainted with the Greek, admits of no doubt at all. Nor does the evil end here. Not only do the modern dialects of the continent receive less attention than they deserve, but our own tongue, second to that of Greece alone in force and copiousness, our own literature, second to none that ever existed, so rich in poetry, in eloquence, in philosophy, is unpardonably neglected. All the nineteen plays of Euripides are digested, from the first bubbling froth of the Hecuba, to the last vapid dregs of the Electra; while our own sweet Fletcher, the second name of the modern drama, in spite of all the brilliancy of his wit, and all the luxury of his tenderness, is suffered to lie neglected. The Essay on the Human Understanding is abandoned for the Theotetus and the Phœdon. We have known the dates of all the petty skirmishes of the Peloponnesian war carefully transcribed and committed to memory, by a man who thought that Hyde and Clarendon were two different persons! That such a man has paid a dear price for his learning, will be admitted. But, it may be said, he has at least something to show for it. Unhappily he has sacrificed, in order to acquire it, the very things without which it was impossible for him to use it. He has acted like a man living in a small lodging, who, instead of spending his money in enlarging his apartments and fitting them up commodiously, should lay it all out on furniture fit only for Chatsworth or Belvoir. His little rooms are blocked up with bales of rich stuffs and heaps of gilded ornaments, which have cost more than he can afford, yet which he has no opportunity and no room to display. Elegant and precious in themselves, they are here utterly out of place; and their possessor finds that, at a ruinous expense, he has bought nothing but inconvenience and ridicule. Who has not seen men to whom ancient learning is an absolute curse, who have labored only to accumulate what they cannot enjoy? They come forth into

the world, expecting to find only a larger university. They find that they are surrounded by people who have not the least respect for the skill with which they detect etymologies, and twist corrupt Epodes into something like meaning. Classical knowledge is indeed valued by all intelligent men; but not such classical knowledge as theirs. To be prized by the public, it must be refined from its grosser particles, burnished into splendor, formed into graceful ornaments, or into current coin. Learning in the ore, learning with all the dross around it, is nothing to the common spectator. He prefers the cheapest tinsel; and leaves the rare and valuable clod, to the few who have the skill to detect its qualities, and the curiosity to prize them.

No man, we allow, can be said to have received a complete and liberal education, unless he have acquired a knowledge of the ancient languages. But not one gentleman in fifty can possibly receive what we should call a complete and liberal education. That term includes not only the ancient languages, but those of France, Italy, Germany, and Spain. It includes mathematics, the experimental sciences, and moral philosophy. An intimate acquaintance both with the profound and polite parts of English literature is indispensable. Few of those who are intended for professional or commercial life can find time for all these studies. It necessarily follows, that some portion of them must be given up: And the question is, what portion? We say, provide for the mind as you provide for the body,—first necessaries,—then conveniences, —lastly, luxuries. Under which of those heads do the Greek and Latin languages come? Surely under the last. Of all the pursuits which we have mentioned, they require the greatest sacrifice of time. He who can afford time for them, and for the others also, is perfectly right in acquiring them. He who cannot, will, if he is wise, be content to go without them. If a man is able to continue his studies till his twenty-eighth or thirtieth year, by all means let him learn Latin and Greek. If he must terminate them at one and twenty, we should in general advise him to be satisfied with the modern languages. If he is forced to enter into active life at fifteen or sixteen, we should think it best that he should confine himself almost entirely to his native tongue, and thoroughly imbue his mind with the spirit of its best writers. But no! the artificial restraints and encouragements which our academic system has introduced have altogether *reversed* this natural and salutary order of things. We deny ourselves what is indispensable, that we may procure what is superfluous. We act like a day-laborer who should stint himself in bread, that he might now and then treat himself with a pottle of January strawberries. Cicero tells us, in the Offices, a whimsical anecdote of Cato the Censor. Somebody asked him

what was the best mode of employing capital. He said, To farm good pasture land. What the next? To farm middling pasture land. What next? To farm bad pasture land. Now the notions which prevail in England respecting classical learning seem to us very much to resemble those which the old Roman entertained with regard to his favorite method of cultivation. Is a young man able to spare the time necessary for passing through the university? Make him a good classical scholar! But a second, instead of residing at the university, must go into business when he leaves school. Make him then a tolerable classical scholar! A third has still less time for snatching up knowledge, and is destined for active employment while still a boy. Make him a bad classical scholar! If he does not become a Flaminius or a Buchanan, he may learn to write nonsense verses. If he does not get on to Horace, he may read the first book of Cæsar. If there is not time even for such a degree of improvement, he may at least be flogged through that immemorial vestibule of learning! 'Quis docet? Who teacheth? Magister docet. The master teacheth.' Would to heaven that he taught something better worth knowing!

All these evils are produced by the state of our universities. Where they lead, those who prepare pupils for them, are forced to follow. Under a free system, the ancient languages would be less read, but quite as much enjoyed. We should not see so many lads who have a smattering of Latin and Greek, from which they derive no pleasure, and which, as soon as they are at liberty, they make all possible haste to forget. It must be owned, also, that there would be fewer young men really well acquainted with the ancient tongues. But there would be many more who had treasured up useful and agreeable information. Those who were compelled to bring their studies to an early close, would turn their attention to objects easily attainable. Those who enjoyed a longer space of literary leisure, would still exert themselves to acquire the classical languages. They would study them, not for any direct emolument which they would expect from the acquisition, but for their own intrinsic value. Their number would be smaller, no doubt, than that of present aspirants after classical honors. But they would not, like most of those aspirants, leave Homer and Demosthenes to gather dust on the shelves, as soon as the temporary purpose had been served. There would be fewer good scholars of twenty-five; but we believe that there would be quite as many of fifty.

Hitherto we have argued on the hypothesis most favorable to the universities. We have supposed that the bounties which they offer to certain studies are fairly bestowed on those who excel. The fact however is, that they are in many cases appropriated to particular counties, parishes, or names. The effect of the former system is to encourage studies of secondary importance, at the ex-

pense of those which are entitled to preference. The effect of the latter is to encourage total idleness. It has been also asserted, that at some colleges the distributors of fellowships and scholarships have allowed themselves to be influenced by party spirit, or personal animosity. On this point, however, we will not insist. We wish to expose the vices, not of individuals, but of the system. Indeed, in what we have hitherto written, we have generally had in our eye a College which exhibits that system in the most favorable light,—a college in which the evils which we have noticed are as much as possible alleviated by an enlightened and liberal administration,—a college not less distinguished by its opulence and splendor, than by the eminent talents of many of its members, by the freedom and impartiality of its elections, by the disposition which it has always shown to adopt improvements not inconsistent with its original consitution, and by the noble spirit with which it has supported the cause of civil and religious liberty.

We have hitherto reasoned as if all the students at our universities learnt those things which the universities profess to teach. But this is, notoriously, not the fact—and the cause is evident. All who wish for degrees must reside at college; but only those who expect to obtain prizes and fellowships apply themselves with vigor to classical and mathematical pursuits. The great majority have no inducement whatever to exert themselves. They have no hope of obtaining the premium; and no value for the knowledge without the premium. For the acquisition of other kinds of knowledge the universities afford no peculiar facilities. Hence proceeds the general idleness of collegians. Not one in ten, we venture to say, ever makes any considerable proficiency in those pursuits to which every thing else is sacrificed. A very large proportion carry away from the university less of ancient literature than they brought thither. It is quite absurd to attribute such a state of things to the indolence and levity of youth. Nothing like it is seen elsewhere. There are idle lads, no doubt, among those who walk the hospitals, who sit at the desks of bankers, and serve at the counters of tradesmen. But what, after all, is the degree of *their* idleness, and what proportion do they bear to those who are active? Is it not the most common thing in the world, to see men, who have passed their time at college in mere trifling, display the greatest energy as soon as they enter on the business of life, and become profound lawyers, skilful physicians, eminent writers? How can these things be explained, but by supposing that most of those who are compelled to reside at the universities have no motive to learn what is taught there? Who ever employed a French master for four years without improving himself in French? The reason is plain. No man employs such a master, but from a wish to become acquainted with

the language; and the same wish leads him to apply vigorously to it. Of those who go to our universities, on the other hand, a large proportion are attracted, not by their desire to learn the things studied there, but by their wish to acquire certain privileges, which residence confers alike on the idle and on the diligent. Try the same experiment with the French language. Erect the teachers of it into a corporation. Give them the power of conferring degrees. Enact that no person who cannot produce a certificate, attesting that he has been for a certain number of years a student at this academy, shall be suffered to keep a shop; and we will venture to predict, that there will soon be thousands; who, after having wasted their money and their time in a formal attendance on lectures and examinations, will not understand the meaning of *Parlez-vous Français?*

It is the general course of those who patronise an abuse to attribute to it every thing good which exists in spite of it. Thus the defenders of our universities commonly take it for granted, that we are indebted to them for all the talent which they have not been able to destroy. It is usual, when their merits come under discussion, to enumerate very pompously all the great men whom they have produced; as if great men had not appeared under every system of education. Great men were trained in the schools of the Greek sophists and Arabian astrologers, of the Jesuits and the Jansenists. There were great men when nothing was taught but School Divinity and Canon law; and there would still be great men if nothing were taught but the fooleries of Spurzheim and Swedenberg. A long list of eminent names is no more a proof of the excellence of our academic institutions, than the commercial prosperity of the country is a proof of the utility of restrictions in trade. No financial regulations, however absurd and pernicious, can prevent a people amongst whom property is secure, and the motive to accumulate consequently strong, from becoming rich. The energy with which every individual struggles to advance, more than counteracts the retarding force, and carries him forward, though at a slower rate, than if he were left at liberty. It is the same with restrictions which prevent the intellect from taking the direction which existing circumstances point out. They do harm. But they cannot wholly prevent other causes from producing good. In a country in which public opinion is powerful, in which talents properly directed are sure to raise their professor to distinction, ardent and aspiring minds will surmount all the obstacles which may oppose their career. It is amongst persons who are engaged in public and professional life that genius is most likely to be developed. Of these a large portion is necessarily sent to our English universities. It would, therefore, be wonderful if the universities could not

boast of many considerable men. Yet, after all, we are not sure whether, if we were to pass in review the Houses of Parliament and the English and Scottish Bar, the result of the investigation would be so favorable as is commonly supposed to Oxford and Cambridge. And of this we are sure, that many persons who, since they have risen to eminence, are perpetually cited as proofs of the beneficial tendency of English education, were at college never mentioned but as idle frivolous men, fond of desultory reading, and negligent of the studies of the place. It would be indelicate to name the living; but we may venture to speak more particularly of the dead. It is truly curious to observe the use which is made in such discussions as these, of names which we acknowledge to be glorious, but in which the colleges have no reason to glory, —that of Bacon, who reprobated their fundamental consitution, of Dryden, who abjured his *Alma Mater*, and regretted that he had passed his youth under her care; of Locke, who was censured and expelled; of Milton, whose person was outraged at one University, and whose works were committed to the flames at the other!

That in particular cases a University education may have produced good effects, we do not dispute. But as to the great body of those who receive it, we have no hesitation in saying, that their minds permanently suffer from it. All the time which they can devote to the acquisition of speculative knowledge is wasted, and they have to enter into active life without it. They are compelled to plunge into the details of business, and are left to pick up general principles as they may. From all that we have seen and heard, we are inclined to suspect, in spite of all our patriotic prejudices, that the young men, we mean the very young men, of England, are not equal as a body to those of France, Germany, or Russia. They reason less justly, and the subjects with which they are chiefly conversant are less manly. As they grow older, they doubtless improve. Surrounded by a free people, enlightend by a free press with the means of knowledge placed within their reach, and the rewards of exertion sparkling in their sight, it would indeed be strange if they did not in a great measure recover the superiority which they had lost. The finished men of England may, we allow, challenge a comparison with those of any nation. Yet our advantages are not so great that we can afford to sacrifice any of them. We do not proceed so rapidly, that we can prudently imitate the example of Lightfoot in the Nursery Tale, who never ran a race without tying his legs. The bad effects of our university system may be traced to the very last, in many eminent and respectable men. They have acquired great skill in business, they have laid up great stores of information. But something is still wanting. The superstructure is vast and splendid; but the foun-

dations are unsound. It is evident that their knowledge is not systematised; that, however well they may argue on particular points, they have not that amplitude and intrepidity of intellect which it is the first object of education to produce. They hate abstract reasoning. The very name of theory is terrible to them. They seem to think that the use of experience is not to lead men to the knowledge of general principles, but to prevent them from ever thinking about general principles at all. They may play at bo-peep with truth; but they never get a full view of it in all its proportions. The cause we believe is, that they have passed those years during which the mind frequently acquires the character which it ever after retains, in studies, which, when exclusively pursued, have no tendency to strengthen or expand it.

From these radical defects of the old foundations the London university is free. It cannot cry up one study or cry down another. It has no means of bribing one man to learn what it is of no use to him to know, or of exacting a mock attendance from another who learns nothing at all. To be prosperous, it must be useful.

We would not be too sanguine. But there are signs of these times, and principles of human nature, to which we trust as firmly as ever any ancient astrologer trusted to the rules of his science. Judging from these we will venture to cast the horoscope of the infant institution. We predict, that the clamor by which it has been assailed will die away,—that it is destined to a long, a glorious, and a beneficent existence,—that, while the spirit of its system remains unchanged, the details will vary with the varying necessities and facilities of every age,—that it will be the model of many future establishments,—that even those haughtyfoundations which now treat it with contempt, will in some degree feel its salutary influence,—and that the approbation of a great people, to whose wisdom, energy and virtue, its exertions will have largely contributed, will confer on it a dignity more imposing than any which it could derive from the most lucrative patronage, or the most splendid ceremonial.

Even those who think our hopes extravagant, must own that no positive harm has been even suggested as likely to result from this Institution. All the imputed sins of its founders are sins of omission. Whatever may be thought of them, it is surely better that something should be omitted than that nothing should be done. The universities it can injure in one way only—by surpassing them. This danger no sincere admirer of these bodies can apprehend. As for those who, believing that the project really tends to the good of the country, continue to throw obloquy upon it—and that there are such men we believe—to them we have nothing to say. We have no hope of converting them; no wish to revile them.

Let them quibble, declaim, sneer, calumniate. Their punishment is to be what they are.

For us, our part has been deliberately chosen—and shall be manfully sustained. We entertain a firm conviction that the principles of liberty, as in government and trade, so also in education, are all important to the happiness of mankind. To the triumph of those principles we look forward, not, we trust, with a fanatical confidence, but assuredly with a cheerful and steadfast hope. Their nature may be misunderstood. Their progress may be retarded. They may be maligned, derided, nay at times exploded, and apparently forgotten. But we do, in our souls, believe that they are strong with the strength, and quick with the vitality of truth; that when they fall, it is to rebound; that when they recede, it is to spring forward with greater elasticity; that when they seem to perish, there are the seeds of renovation in their very decay.

MR. EMERSON'S FEMALE SEMINARY AT WETHERSFIELD CONNECTICUT.*

Course of Instruction.

THE course of instruction in the Seminary is designed to embrace three seasons of twenty-eight weeks each. It is expected, that ordinarily, during the Junior Season, young ladies will prepare for the Middle class; and during the Middle Season, for the Senior. This, however, is not to be considered, as a matter of course. It may often be otherwise. Young ladies will rise from class to class, according to their proficiency. In cases of uncommon progress in knowledge and mental improvement, some may advance more rapidly, and possibly, from commencing with the Juniors, one season, may close with the Seniors, the next. And during the same season, it may perhaps be said to some, 'Go up higher.' Yet, as it is intended, that none but thorough scholars shall ever have a standing in the Senior class, it may sometimes be expedient for young ladies to remain two seasons in the same class; or to employ two years in passing from the Junior class to the Senior.

It is not to be understood, however, that young ladies must always have been members of the junior class, in order to join either of the others. If properly qualified, a young lady may become a member of any class, at any stage of its advancement.

This course of instruction is by no means so long as many ardent friends to female improvement may wish. It seems, indeed, desirable, that it should be very much protracted, so as to allow

* See intelligence in last Number.

a portion of time, equal to twenty-five complete weeks for studying, Arithmetic and Geometry; twenty-five for Geography and Chronology; forty, for the Bible; forty, for the Civil and Ecclesiastical History of our own country; sixty, for all other civil and ecclesiastical history, not contained in the Bible; thirty, for Grammar; thirty, for Rhetoric and Composition; twenty, for Natural Philosophy and Chemistry; twenty, for intellectual Philosophy and Edution; twenty, for Moral Philosophy; fifteen, for the Poets, &c. &c. But the present state of our country seems not to justify the plan of so extended a course of female education, except perhaps for a small portion of our most opulent citizens. When our district schools become what they should be, all this and more, will undoubtedly be realised; and a common school education may then be better than a college education now. But this is for future and wiser generations to accomplish. If we cannot effect all we would we must try to content ourselves with doing what we can, rejoicing in prospect of the wonders which our successors are to achieve.

The humble plan of a course of eighty-four weeks, is the utmost which I now presume to adopt. And this plan, limited as it is, is something more than the plans which I have yet executed; and I cannot but hope, that it will prove some advance upon the plans of female education, which to any considerable extent, have been hitherto attempted; and that by this course, young ladies will be enabled to acquire an education, more thorough, more practical and more useful, than has been customary in this country, or any other.

Important advantages may be expected from the classification of the students. A considerable number, possessing nearly equal attainments, engaged in the same pursuits, and stimulated by various motives, cannot fail to animate each other in their literary progress. But by far the greatest advantage of this arrangement may be expected to result from the time and attention, which it allows the teachers to devote to their pupils. Ordinarily, a teacher will attend only one recitation in a half-day; and will thus be able to make special preparation for the discharge of this important duty. There will then be opportunity, not merely to hear the pupils repeat their lessons, but to ask them collateral questions, to ask question upon question, to add illustrations, and by actual example, to teach them to discuss and to investigate. This must be much more conducive to improve their reasoning powers, and make them logicians, than merely their learning the rules of logic.

It is hoped, that the lectures, given in connection, will not only be useful in themselves, but conduce to render the general course of study more interesting and beneficial.

Although in so short a course the students cannot make all the

progress they may desire, yet a hope is cherished, that they will learn to teach themselves—that they will lay a foundation broad, deep and firm, on which they may be continually building, and adorning an intellectual edifice, till the days of their dotage.

This course of instruction includes none but the solid and useful branches; and even these cannot be all included. If some attention should be devoted to drawing, it will be in a manner that requires very little skill or time; and the time thus employed will probably be as conducive to enrich the intellectual treasury, as if it were devoted immediately to literary pursuits. Though some useful branches must be omitted, it is hoped, that attention will be paid to the most important; that the most deserving of these will receive most attention; and that every branch will be treated, in a good degree, according to its importance.

In this course, it is proposed to follow the indication of nature: to teach those things first, which appear first in the order of nature; or, in other words, to teach first, those branches and parts of branches, which may be understood by themselves, and gradually proceed to others, which most immediately and intimately depend upon these. This is among the most important and difficult problems in education. How absurd must it be for example, to attempt to teach Multiplication to a person ignorant of Addition; or to teach Division to one, unacquainted with Subtraction and Multiplication. Inconsistencies like these, are probably to be found, in a greater or less degree, in almost every literary institution. And there is no doubt, that a teacher is often grieved, distressed, and vexed, with the seeming stupidity of his pupils in not understanding what appears so very plain and easy to him, when the whole difficulty arises from their ignorance of some word used in the explanation, or their not being acquainted with some branch, necessary to be known, in order to understand the point under consideration. It is probable, that defects in intellectual education have owed their origin more to this cause, than to almost any other—and more than to all others, except the depravity of the heart. From this cause, no doubt, thousands of bright geniuses, after devoting much time to literary formalities, and a dull routine of what was misnamed, *study*, have lived and died haters of literature and despisers of science; and many who possibly might have been Newtons, have been scarcely superior to dunces. Nor do I presume to flatter myself, that the course of study in my institution, will be entirely free from such inconsistences. There are difficulties, intrinsic difficulties, relating to this subject, which perhaps cannot be surmounted, till Intellectual Philosophy, is better understood, and more skilfully applied in the process of education. These difficulties have appeared to me more and more appalling, as I have been painfully

engaged, from year to year, in attempting to understand and remove them.

This is not the place to discuss this subject at length. A few additional remarks must suffice. As literary instruction must be communicated, in a great measure, by means of language, it is of radical importance, that the greatest efforts should be made to give the pupil clear, correct and precise ideas of the words used in defining and illustrating. The best method of doing this, is not by teaching them foreign or dead languages, nor by repeating synonymous words, which they do not understand, but by familiar and copious explanations, by showing them the object, whenever it is practicable, or by showing them pictures, or natural signs of the object with frequent questions, to ascertain how far they understand the subject. Indeed, questioning may often do more, than merely aid in ascertaining how far the pupil understands the point under consideration. It may lead him to a discovery of things before unknown, for which other means might not be effectual.

I will mention two or three instances of the gradation of branches, proposed in the course. It is manifest that Arithmetic must be in some measure known, in order to understand Geography. In almost every page of Geography, numbers are brought to view; and these cannot be understood without some knowledge of Arithmetic, which is the science of numbers. To the study of Geography, some acquaintance with Geometry also is a prerequisite equally important. For the want of this, it is often the case, that those who have devoted much time to the study of Geography, know scarcely anything of latitude or longitude, of the comparative magnitudes of countries, &c. of the distances and bearings of places, and of some of the most important properties of maps.

Geography and Chronology are the 'eyes' of history. How many, alas, have attempted to grope their way through the historic field, without these lights! How dark and bewildering has been their course! The study of History, then, should be preceded by that of Geography, and either preceded or accompanied by that of Chronology.

A considerable acquaintance with Arithmetic and some knowledge of Geometry should also precede the study of Natural Philosophy.

In this course of instruction, it is designed, as far as possible, to proceed gradually from the more easy to the more difficult. This rule of procedure is not exactly the same as the preceding. Though they often coincide, they sometimes differ in their requirements. In Euclid's Elements of Geometry, for example, the 5th and 7th propositions are generally found much more difficult, than many of those that succeed. In Legendre's Elements of Geome-

try, the demonstration of the first proposition is incomparably more intricate, than any of the rest, that I have examined. In Arithmetic, some exercises in Addition and Subtraction, are very much more difficult, than others in Multiplication and Division. This is the case in a greater or less degree, with every branch of science and literature: at least, it is undoubtedly the case with all the regular treatises that have been designed as elementary. The evil of this is formidable indeed. When the ardent youth spends hour after hour, in vainly attempting to understand the first demonstration of Legendre, it must be extremely distressing and discouraging. In my early pupilage, I studied Cicero's Orations, without suitable preparations, or suitable aids. I met with many passages, which I did not understand—which under such disadvantages, I could not understand. The exercise was nearly as unprofitable, as it was unpleasant. The same may be, in some measure, the case, in the pursuit of various other studies. For such evils, it is doubtless impossible, at once, to devise and apply complete remedies. It is confidently believed, however, that these evils may be exceedingly mitigated. The accomplishment of this will be a leading object in all the arrangements and operations of my institution.

In this course of instruction, it is designed, that each student shall, as far as possible, see and feel the real importance and practical utility of every branch pursued. It is designed, that every branch attended to, and every exercise required, shall be at once conducive to discipline and improve the mental faculties, and also to furnish that knowledge and that skill, which are continually needful for practical application in every walk of life. Some writers upon this subject, seem to imagine, that in a course of intellectual education, the idea of direct practical utility is scarcely to be regarded; and that if any study or exercise is conducive to mental improvement, this circumstance alone is a sufficient recommendation. To a person of such views, it may be said 'Behold thou art wiser than Solomon!' I am not yet convinced, however, that there is any way better than the best—that there is any way to be preferred to the good old way, that Infinite Wisdom has taught us, 'Train up a child in the way he should go.' That those under our care may be thus trained up, it seems desirable, that they should proceed understandingly, that they should know and feel the practical importance of every branch pursued, that they may thus be enabled and disposed to cooperate with us for their own advantage; and that for this end, they should receive line upon line, and precept upon precept, continually.

One object, which will be constantly kept in view, in this course of instruction, is to give the pupils some information respecting the astonishing improvements, which, the wonder-working

providence and grace of God are continually effecting in different parts of the world—improvements relating principally to religion, liberty, science and literature. But little attention can, indeed, be devoted to this object, compared with its stupendous magnitude and vast importance. The object is, if possible, to draw the attention of the pupils to the great and glorious things, which God is accomplishing, to prepare the way for greater things than these, which future ages shall behold; and to render the reading of the most important parts of the public journals from week to week, more intelligible, more pleasing and more beneficial.

It may be interesting to such, as may be disposed to patronise this Seminary, to be informed a little more particularly of the time and order of exercise from day to day.

In these respects, there will probably be some variety in different stages of the course. One or both of the lower classes will generally recite at 8 o'clock A. M. At 9, the members of the Seminary and School attend devotional exercises. A lecture upon some branch of literature is generally then attended by most of the members of the Seminary. Next, is a recitation, or recitations, for those who did not recite at 8. Different classes meet at different hours in the afternoon, from one to three, to attend recitations or exercises in Chirography or Arithmetic. Devotional exercises, at five, half after five, or six. Each young lady generally spends four or five hours a day at these religious and literary exercises. Studying is chiefly performed at their places of residence. The afternoons of Wednesday and Saturday are ordinarily devoted to reading, the young ladies attending in small divisions at different hours. One half day in a week is generally devoted to reviews.

SUGGESTIONS TO PARENTS.

Early physical education.

To the Editor,

Sir, I am one of those among your subscribers who have always been pleased with the importance which you ascribe to female influence and agency in the business of education—and I should be happy to contribute something to the mother's success in her department. This I am most disposed to attempt in the way of physical education, in this view, I will with her leave take my stand by the side of her infant, from his first respiration, in order to defend him from the bustling interference of officious self-suffi-

ciency, from ignorance and fashion, and from the ill directed measures of groundless solicitude. And if you can believe that the tender object of our care is ordinarily surrounded by all these 'friends and enemies,' you will readily feel that he needs at least one protector to shield him from their combined operations.

The first wants of the infant may be divided into those of cleanliness, clothing, and food; and, for this time, I shall limit my remarks chiefly to these three topics. One not skilled in the theory and practice of nurses, and women of years and *experience*, would not suppose that there was, in the nature of things, any great mystery or difficulty in washing an infant; and yet they on whom this simple operation commonly devolves, contrive to do it badly.

Milk-warm, soft water, *mild* soap, and a piece of flannel, are all the preparation that is necessary.

Soft flannel more readily absorbs and removes the caseous matter with which the skin is covered than linen or cotton.

This washing should be steadily and perseveringly, not violently, continued till the skin is perfectly clean, smooth, and comfortable. Instead of this natural, easy, and grateful process, the nurse or some experienced matron present, full of the magnitude of her assumed office, and her all sufficiency to perform it according to custom and art, calls for some lard or other animal oil to besmear the body, which is then to be removed by acrid soap and water, after which the irritated skin of the 'tender plant,' is to be further chafed and inflamed by a free application of rum, brandy, or some other spirit;—whichever can be first found in the hurry and confusion with which the whole matter is despatched.

We thus see how early it is necessary to oppose the errors and intrusions of ignorance, presumption, and habit, by the aid of reason, common sense, and humanity, in any attempts to secure the physical well being of our race.

Important and desirable as it is, that children, in northern climates, should be rendered hardy and familiar with cold air and cold water, it should never be forgotten, that this firmness and security can only be obtained by slow and cautious advances. Few customs are so unnatural and injurious as that of washing new-born infants in cold water. The washing and dressing of infants, with the necessary exposure to the air, constitute a sufficient commencement of the *seasoning* regimen for the first three months, during which the water should not be suffered to communicate any sensation of cold. The only exception to this rule is, where the child is oppressed with atmospheric heat, in which case the water should be *pleasantly* cool only.

From this period, if the infant be well, and the weather not cold, the temperature of the water may be gradually lowered: so that at

the end of six months, if this be in summer, cold water may be used; that is to say, water not artificially heated.

What would the never-doubting nurse think, if the harsh expedient were prescribed for herself, which, with equal want of judgement and feeling, she practises on her helpless charge.

In furnishing the infant's wardrobe, we should have reference to economy, convenience, health, and good taste: these are the objects to be attained. Anything like ornament, (unless it be something very simple and appropriate,) or undue expense, is equally opposed to economy and good taste. The infant himself is the jewel; and the casket should never be permitted to usurp the mother's or spectator's attention.

To be convenient, the dress should be so made as to be put on and taken off in as little time, and with as little labor as possible. To promote health, the dress should be suited to the various seasons of the year; never so warm as to be oppressive in summer, nor so light in winter as not to protect the child both from the irksome sensation of cold, and the risk of disease. Soft, thin flannel should be the prevailing material for three fourths of *our* year.

Noncombustible substances should alone be used during that portion of the year in which fires are kindled. This single precaution would be the means of preventing a number of painful deaths. Needles, when used for fastening the dress, are worse than pins; and pins should be as little used as possible.

At no period of life should any part of our clothing be permitted, in the smallest degree, to impede the freedom of muscular motion, nor by compression, to interfere with an easy and healthful performance of all the essential functions of life; such as circulation, breathing, digestion, &c.

Every day this rule is violated, and every day suffering or death is the consequence. Can any young lady think to entertain her friends by attempting to sing or read to them, when her chest is so compressed that she cannot by any effort distend her lungs with air?

The resources of art are best applied when they are made to counteract the inequalities of nature. And with regard to temperature, that dress is the most perfect which adds least to the oppressive heat of summer, and protects the body most effectually from the cold of winter.

One remark, in regard to clothing, as it respects temperature, is important; for persons in health the best temperature is that middle state, which is exactly midway between the sensation of heat or cold. Either deviation from this medium is equally unpleasant, or injurious, and equally to be avoided.

From a disregard of this fact, many children and adults are in-

commoded or injured by too much heat. This renders the body tender, and more readily subjects it to disease from the common effects of exposure to the atmosphere. Infants require so much watching and fidelity to secure their wellbeing, that parents may well dispense with any labor or expense which does not contribute to this end. Such works of supererogation, we think, are all dresses for the head; they are certainly useless, and in the opinion of those who are best qualified to decide in this matter, they are worse than useless, for they make the head tender, subject it to catarrh, promote undue heat, eruptions, &c.

[The subject of this article shall be resumed in next number.]

REVIEWS.

Outlines of Philosophical Education, illustrated by the method of teaching the Logic Class in the University of Glasgow; together with Observations on the expediency of extending the Practical System to other Academical Establishments, and on the propriety of making certain additions to the Course of Philosophical Education in Universities. By George Jardine, A. M., F. R. S. E., Professor of Logic and Rhetoric in that University. Second edition, enlarged. Glasgow, 1825. 12mo. pp. 542.

Persons who take a deep interest in the subject of education, will find this volume the most interesting that for many years has issued from the press. Intellectual culture is in this work raised to that elevation to which it is entitled, from its dignity as a department of science, no less than of art, and from its important relation to the business of life. The author of the Outlines—an eminent practical philosopher and a veteran in the service of education—takes the young instructer by the hand, and places him at the feet of a sound and enlightened philosophy, there to watch the developement of the mind, and to ascertain that course of discipline, which is best adapted to the constitution and the condition of man. The venerable professor ennobles the art of teaching by raising it above the mere process of mechanical routine and drudgery, and by infusing into its details the spirit of intellectual science. He carries the teacher to a point from which a commanding survey of the whole field of education may be taken, and enables him to enter on the duties of his station, with those comprehensive views

and inspiring principles which give efficiency and dignity to instruction.

The Outlines, though professedly written with a more immediate application to philosophical education, exhibit principles, and suggest improvements, of the utmost importance to every department of instruction; and no teacher—whatever may be his sphere—will rise from the perusal of this work, without higher conceptions of his duties, and more adequate preparation for the discharge of them.

One great advantage resulting from the influence of Professor Jardine's treatise, will be a more speedy removal of false impressions with regard to the profession (if we may so call it) of teaching. A young man of abilities has commonly been induced to believe that he owes it to himself and his family, or his friends, to aspire after something higher, as a business for life, than the humble office of teaching. The able and the enterprising among the young candidates for professional reputation, have accordingly pressed on in pursuit of other occupations; and with comparative disdain have passed by the avenue of employment which education opens to them. But the author of the Outlines has succeeded in giving so interesting and dignified an aspect to instruction, that it is rendered worth the notice of the most ambitious aspirant for a useful and reputable occupation. The tone of Professor Jardine's work, together with the increasing disposition to afford instructers a more adequate compensation for their labors, will, we trust, contribute to elevate still more the rising character of instruction in this country.

The volume which we here introduce to our readers, has peculiar claims on their attention. It is the fruit of fifty years' experience, in the arduous and honorable vocation to which its author devoted himself. We have here no precipitate conclusions, no rash assertions, no superficial theories, proceeding from a sanguine disposition, and an excited imagination. Every plan has been submitted to the test of half an age. The author had the magnanimity to begin the business of his office in the attitude of a learner, and to pursue it with the diffidence and the caution of a true disciple of the great father of modern experimental philosophy. With a self-command, too, which furnishes an instructive lesson in these days of premature and juvenile authorship, he reserved the publication of the invaluable results at which he had arrived, till the lapse of half a century had set its seal to their certainty and their worth.

Another circumstance which gives an uncommon value to the work before us, is, that it not only looks on education through the medium of intellectual philosophy, but presents the first specimen

of a course of purely philosophic discipline being rendered subservient to the actual business of life, and to the existing circumstances of society. The student of philosophy has hitherto been regarded as the most strictly secluded of all the devotees of abstract science, —as a being privileged with an entire exemption from the realities and the activity of ordinary life. Professor Jardine has shown that the study of intellectual science may not only be rendered harmless to those who are to be engaged in the practical pursuits of science, of literature, or of business, but that it may be made to furnish the best possible preparation for active life, with all its demands for enterprise and effort—its unexpected calls on personal character—its unforeseen emergencies, requiring an instant and absolute command of thought, and a complete readiness in word and action. For those departments of business particularly, which demand the 'full,' the 'exact,' and the 'ready' man, in perfect combination, the philosophic course sketched in the Outlines, forms an admirable preparatory training.

The methods of mental discipline which have been commonly adopted in initiating the young in the arts of writing and speaking, have been very defective. The pupil begins at school the systematic study of English grammar, or 'the art of speaking and writing correctly;' at college he advances to logic, or 'the art of reasoning;' and he turns his attention last of all to metaphysics, or, in other words, to intellect and its operations. He is thus compelled to invert the order of nature. He learns first the art of expression, and then the art of thinking. Professor Jardine is entitled to the credit of being the first instructer who ventured to begin with the cultivation of thought, and thence proceed to that of expression. He furnishes the student, in the first place, with the materials of thought and the habit of thinking. He then applies to the mind thus furnished and prepared, the actual discipline of a course of practical logic; and finally applies all this previous training, to the department of written and oral expression. During a part of the course of instruction, all the branches mentioned above are cultivated simultaneously; but in no part is the last named placed first in order. The student's mind is thus made to develope itself, and to effect insensibly, but surely, the improvement of his style. The command of thought is first acquired; and this furnishes a command of words, which critical attention, and constant practice ultimately render perfect. Despatch in writing, an invaluable acquisition for professional life, is by the same method early attained, and is naturally accompanied by a facility and accuracy of extemporaneous address; than which there is no accomplishment more indispensable to the successful conducting of a great proportion of public business.

The prevailing arrangement in seminaries of learning, is, to keep mental and rhetorical discipline as distinct as possible—to render, in other words, the study of philosophy dry and useless, and that of rhetoric an unmeaning and mechanical process, as far removed as the other from the results which the student's destination in life will ultimately call for.

The Outlines of Philosophical Education will, we hope, be speedily introduced in every college and in every preparatory seminary in the United States. The book will be equally serviceable to students and to instructers. It will 'breathe the breath of life' into the whole form of instruction, and convert the class-room into an intellectual arena for vigorous and pleasing effort on the part both of the teachers and the taught. No work, we believe, could be mentioned so well suited to aid the progress of practical improvement in the useful departments of education. Professor Jardine's volume is one which every instructer who is really desirous of advancing his pupils, ought to consult daily, till all its plans and details are rendered perfectly familiar.

But it is time to introduce the work more directly, and in the author's own words.

'The author of the following Outlines has long been of opinion that philosophical education, as it is generally conducted in our universities, is too much confined to the mere communication of knowledge; and that too little attention is bestowed on the formation of those intellectual habits of thinking, judging, reasoning, and communication, upon which the farther prosecution of science, and the business of active life, almost entirely depend. He is fully sensible of the genius, the knowledge, and the eloquence, which have been displayed in the public lectures delivered by many professors in our universities,—some of whom, during the last century, have attained to the highest rank in their respective departments; but still he cannot help thinking that little has been done to generate, in the student, that activity of mind, and that facility of applying his intellectual powers, which ought to be the great object of all education.

The communication of knowledge is indeed necessary to furnish suitable materials for the exercise of the mental faculties; and, perhaps, with a few students, whose minds are easily awakened to scientific pursuits, little else may be required. But this can only apply to a very small proportion indeed of those who enter upon a course of philosophical education; and, even with regard to them, nearly the same advantage may be derived from the judicious and systematic perusal of the writings of ancient and modern philosophers, as from merely attending a course of lectures.

It has been the object of the author, who has been employed for the long period of fifty years in the department of the first philosophy class in the university of Glasgow, to endeavor, as much as possible, to remedy this defect; and while he has, in the course of his public lectures, explained the first principles of the philosophy of the human mind, he has uniformly accompanied these lectures with a system of active discipline on the part of his students, with a view to invigorate, and improve, the important habits of inquiry and of communication.

These Outlines, accordingly, consist of two parts;—the first exhibits a view of the lectures which are delivered to the students; in which the author does not lay claim to the merit of any new discoveries in the science of mind, but has endeavored to select those subjects which seemed most adapted for the employment of youth, at the commencement of their philosophical studies. Accordingly, he has not confined himself to the *art of logic*, or to any one department of knowledge, but has endeavored to lay before his students, in a simple and intelligible form, the elements of the science of mind, with an analysis of the different intellectual powers in the order of their connexion and dependence,—the theory of language, as illustrative of human thought,—the principles of taste and criticism,—and the means of improving the powers of communication by speech and writing, as exhibited in the best models of ancient and modern composition.

The second part—which, to the author, appears by far the most useful department of his labors—contains an account of the practical system of discipline to which the students of this class are regularly subjected, for the purpose of acquiring habits of inquiry and communication. This consists, *first*, of an account of the mode in which the daily examination is conducted; and, *secondly*, of the exercises which are regularly executed by the students, and submitted to the criticism of the professor. Neither in this part does the author claim the merit of any new discovery; because the principles on which he proceeds have been long known: but he is not aware of any public seminary, where a system of practical exertion, on the part of the students, has been enforced to such an extent as that to which he has endeavored to carry it.

In this second edition, the author has made several alterations, which he hopes will be considered as material improvements, when compared with the former impression of this work.

The approbation which the system of practical education has received from the public, has encouraged him to propose an extension of its principles to three additional classes, which in his estimation appear necessary for completing the course of professional study. He has ventured to recommend, that professors should be

appointed to give lectures on the philosophy of history, on political economy, and on the improvement of eloquence considered as an art.* The author has stated, at considerable length, his reasons for the introduction of these important branches into the course of general education; the principal of which is, that they have become of late years so very closely connected with the affairs of life, and with the management of public business, that the knowledge of them is quite indispensable for qualifying young men to discharge the various duties to which their station in life is likely to call them.'

It may not be uninteresting to take a glance at the situation in which the author of the Outlines acquired the valuable experience which his work is intended to communicate.

'The principal universities in Europe, it is well known, were founded during the reign of the scholastic philosophy, which consisted of such a mixture of the doctrines and opinions of the ancient philosophers, as it was possible to derive from corrupt copies, and imperfect translations, of their works. To these were added the numerous theological controversies which exercised the ingenuity, and employed the barbarous style, of the writers in the middle ages; and as the chief object of education was to qualify young men for the service of the church, the motley system, which has just been described, was made the subject of study, in the schools of cathedrals, and of monasteries, as well as in other religious houses.

Although, in the earlier ages of Christianity, the doctrines of Plato were allowed to maintain a disputed authority with those of Aristotle, yet, upon the revival of learning in Europe, (more correct copies of the ancient authors having been previously discovered,) it was found that the works of the latter philosopher had obtained an almost exclusive possession of the schools; and this preference is not, perhaps, surprising, when it is recollected that the writings of this celebrated character embrace almost every subject of human knowledge—physics, metaphysics, ethics, logic, rhetoric, natural history, politics, and criticism.

That logic, at a particular period, and from particular circumstances, should have been cultivated more than any other art or science, is not perhaps very wonderful; but that it should have taken such a hold of the minds of men as in a great measure to preclude all other studies, and to constitute the chief occupation of the learned, is certainly a singular phenomenon in the history of literature. It may not, therefore, be uninteresting to point out some of those circumstances which are supposed to have originally led to this universal reception of Aristotle's logic; as well as to the continuance of its authority, in certain academical establishments in our own times, long after the causes, now alluded to, have ceased to exist.

* This part of the Outlines will be presented separately in a subsequent number.—*Ed.*

The ancient history of the church informs us, that considerable differences of opinion, as to doctrine and ritual observances, subsisted even among the primitive Christians. In the beginning of the sixteenth century, however, when letters had revived, and the Reformation had made some progress, the topics of religious controversy were greatly multiplied: and, as these topics, at the era in question, were always more or less associated with speculations of a metaphysical nature, the addition thus made to the number of philosophical disputes formerly agitated, not only opened a wider field for the exercise of the dialectician, but suggested the expediency of paying more attention to the manner in which the process of attack and defence might be conducted. The combatants on either side, accordingly, recurred with increased earnestness to the study of Aristotle's Analytics, which, abounding in nice distinctions and definitions, in abstract notions, and general terms, supplied them with the means of maintaining an interminable disputation, without once entering into the merits of the subject upon which it turned: and thus the controversialist, although incapable of securing a decisive victory, was never in danger of an irreparable defeat.

From the operation of these causes, as well as for other reasons, of which it is unnecessary to give a minute detail, the philosophy of Aristotle, and particularly the doctrine of the syllogism, had, even at a date considerably prior to the reformation, been viewed with a degree of enthusiastic admiration, approaching to idolatry. There is, accordingly, no epithet of praise or of adulation which has not been lavishly bestowed on the talents of that writer; nor is there any object in nature or in art, so exalted as not to have afforded to his admirers the ground of a comparison with his works, and even of a decided preference of those works to all created things.

It was during this triumphant period of Aristotle's authority, that the plan of education in the principal academical establishments of Europe was reduced into some sort of a system: on which account, it is not surprising that the first place in it should have been given to his logic and metaphysics. Having once obtained this place in the scheme of public instruction, our ordinary views of human nature enable us to explain why, in certain circumstances, they should have been permitted to retain their rank, as objects of human study, long after the causes to which they owed pre-eminence, had ceased to exist.

In our next number we shall pursue our extracts from this interesting volume, and endeavor to give a statement of the author's peculiar method of imparting instruction.

A Manual of Chemistry, on the basis of Professor Brande's, containing the principal facts of the Science, arranged in the order in which they are discussed and illustrated in the Lectures at Harvard College, N. E.; compiled from the works of Brande, Henry, Berzelius, Thomson, and others. Designed for the use of Students, and persons attending Lectures on Chemistry. By John W. Webster, M. D., Lecturer on Chemistry in Harvard University. Boston. 8vo. pp. 603.

We feel called on to notice this volume, as a work on a most important branch of practical education. The absolute necessity for some acquaintance with chemistry among all classes, and especially those engaged in manufactures and the arts, is so generally felt and admitted, that it has become in all institutions for education an object of special attention. We consider the study of chemistry as of great value in developing the mental energies of the young, and as attended with many excellent physical effects. The materials for study to the chemist are never exhausted: every animal, each leaf, fruit and seed, nay every stone which the earth presents may be made the subject of an instructive lesson. It has been remarked that no pursuit tends more than chemistry to the acquisition of that habit of attending to one thing at a time, which is the path to great results;—patience and systematic research, cleanliness and a love of order, are also a part of the benefits the young may derive from prosecuting chemical inquiries.

Let the future occupation of the pupil be what it may, the time spent in the acquirement of a general knowledge of this science cannot be deemed a loss in any case; for in this age of chemical invention, its importance is so manifest, that every gentleman is expected to know something of it, and the earlier in life it enlightens his mind the better; and in many female academies it is now adopted as a necessary part of a lady's education.

We have been led to make these general remarks, not as introductory to a formal review of Dr. Webster's work, but with the hope of reminding those seminaries and schools where chemistry is not yet studied, of their great omission.

Dr. Webster's work seems to be peculiarly adapted for the use of the higher class of seminaries and colleges, being most happily arranged and abounding in experimental illustrations. The plates are more numerous than in any similar work with which we are acquainted, and are executed with great neatness.

It may be satisfactory to instructers who have not had the opportunity of becoming acquainted with the arrangement of this manual, to peruse the following extract from the advertisement prefixed to the volume.

'The basis of this work is the excellent Manual of Professor Brande; it contains all the strictly chemical part of that work, with numerous additions from the best writers on Chemistry. All that part of Professor Brande's work which relates to Mineralogy and Geology has been omitted, its place being supplied by more ample directions for the practical student. In most cases the extracts from other writers have been given without any alteration, except where it was demanded in order to give a greater degree of uniformity to the phraseology. The extracts are designated by the first letter of the writer's name, and copious references are given for the convenience of those who may wish to consult the original memoirs.

As it was a leading object in the compilation of this volume to put into the hands of students a less expensive work than that of Brande or Henry, and at the same time to compress as much matter as possible into one volume, many of the less important substances and several instruments have been described in the form of notes.

The plates will be found to contain nearly all the figures contained in the volumes of Brande and Henry, with the additon of several from other sources, the whole presenting a more complete chemical apparatus than is to be found in any chemical work with the exception perhaps of Thenard's *Traité*

This volume being designed as an elementary treatise for students, the tables usually found in works on chemistry, have been omitted, but will be published in a separate volume, together with selections of the most instructive analyses which are contained in the Essays of Klaproth and the various scientific journals.'

The volume to which we have now invited the attention of our readers, is an instance of the successful improvement of the superior facilities which in this country are enjoyed by the compilers of text books for instruction. Dr. Webster's Manual contains not only the valuable substance of the most popular corresponding treatise used in England, but embraces much useful matter which no English compiler could present without infringing the rights of other authors.

It is no arrogant assumption to claim for this excellent work the credit of being the best practical treatise on chemistry, which has hitherto been offered to students on either side of the Atlantic, who receive their instruction through the medium of the English language.

STRICTURES ON MURRAY'S GRAMMAR.

(Continued from page 429.)

We cannot expect to resolve into their ancient forms all the words which ignorance, a defective system of etymology, or the natural inclination to clip and contract words in common use, may have rendered so unlike their original, that the relation can hardly be discovered; but it is really an object to reduce to their original class all such as may be reduced without doing violence to any etymological or grammatical principle.

We have already referred the article and the possessive case of nouns to the class of *adjectives*. To this class also we have referred nouns used as adjectives, whether united to the other noun by a hyphen or not.* To this class we must also bring all the pronouns and all the participles, when used as adjectives.

Murray says, '*An adjective is a word added to a substantive to express its* QUALITY.'—As he calls the numerals and ordinals adjectives, it is presumed that by restricting or limiting the meaning of nouns, he supposed they qualified them; we shall therefore use his definition in this more extensive signification. Again, '*an adjective may be known by its making sense with the word Thing after it.*' He likewise says, somewhere, '*An adjective cannot make sense by itself, but must have a noun, expressed or understood, to which it belongs.*'

To guide us in our remarks we shall class adjectives under several heads.

1. Words allowed by all to be adjectives, expressing quality, and, of course, allowing degrees of comparison.

2. Words expressing number and order, which of course admit of no comparison. Of this class are one, (and its relations none, *that is*, no-one, alone, only, an, a, any, many) ten, hundred, &c. first, second, third, &c. both, several, some, all, which, what, whose, each, every, either, neither, other, another, &c.

* Our contributor still objects to the use of the hyphen in words situated as mentioned p. 429. His objection is founded on the following principle, 'That in our *written* language the meaning of the words must be determined *by the context*; in our *spoken* language it is determined by *the accent*:' that, in either case, therefore, a hyphen is superfluous. The principle, as such, is certainly entitled to a hearty assent. But unfortunately it is *usage* and not *principles* which, in such cases, language, whether oral or written, acknowledges as a standard of decision. The thing becomes a question of facts, and of practice, and not of opinion or of theory. The use of the hyphen in the cases alluded to, is a standing custom of the pen and of the press; and though ingenious and able arguments may be advanced to prove it theoretically wrong, it will continue to be, like every other point in established usage,—practically and actually right. *Ed.*

3. Words that indicate persons or things, without expressing any quality, as the, this, that, these, those. These cannot be compared.

4. Adjectives indicating the *person* who is the agent or object of what is affirmed; as, I, me, we, us, thou, thee, ye, you, he, him, she, her, it, they, them, who.

5. Adjectives formed from those of the fourth class, and used, not merely to point out the agents or objects, but also to show their relation to some other noun. Of this class are my, mine, thy, thine, his, her, hers, its, our, ours, your, yours, their, theirs.

6. Adjectives formed from nouns without alteration, or by adding an apostrophe, with or without an s, as, *glass* house, *man's*, *John's*, &c.

7. Verbs which are used as adjectives without any additional termination, as, *tell*-tale, *keep*-sake, *go*-cart, &c.—the past or imperfect tense of all regular verbs, and of such irregulars as have the past tense and perfect participle alike; as *loved*, *feared*, &c. *bent*, *dug*, &c.

8. Verbs with the termination *en* or *ing*, and such of Murray's perfect participles of irregular verbs as differ from the past tense; as, *written*, *loving*, *begun*.

In regard to all the words of these eight classes we would remark, that they *qualify* nouns, in Murray's sense of the word; that they cannot be used without a noun; that they may be known by making sense with the word *thing* after them. We shall make a few particular remarks upon some of the classes.

1. Of the first class we need say nothing, for both parties agree in respect to them.

2 and 3. Murray allows all the words of the second and third classes to be either adjectives or adjective pronouns, that is, pronouns used as adjectives, except *an*, *a*, and *the*, which were examined under the head of articles.

4. The words in the fourth class he calls *pronouns*, and says 'they stand *instead* of nouns.' We assert that they are no more used *instead* of nouns than other adjectives are, whose nouns are understood. That they are generally used *without* the noun's being expressed, we allow, but this was not so much the case formerly as it is now; and even now, when we wish to avoid mistakes, and be very definite, we always insert the nouns. Of this, perhaps the most striking examples occur in legal forms, where, lest the pronoun (adjective) should point to the wrong word, the right one is always repeated. '*A pronoun is a word used instead of a noun, to avoid the too frequent repetition of the same word.*' This implies that the word has been once expressed, and *that* previously to using the pronoun.

'The man is happy, *he* is benevolent, *he* is useful.' *He* stands instead of man, it is said.

The man is happy, *happy* because benevolent, *happy* because useful, *happy* because contented, &c. Is *happy* a pronoun also? it seems to 'stand instead of' *man*.

Let us analyse Mr. Murray's sentence. *The* we have proved to be the same word as *this*, *these*, *that*, &c. It is then, '*This* or *that* man is happy,' &c. *He* is derived from the Latin adjective *Is*, which becomes *I*, Italian, pronounced *E*, and E in English with the breathing, or as we call it, H. *Is*, in Latin, generally means *that*, and is joined to a noun. *The* and *he*, then, are the same word in fact, and it is the same thing to say, *the* man is happy, *he* is benevolent, *he* is useful—or, *the* man is happy, *the* (man) is benevolent, *the* (man) is useful.

He does not stand instead of the word *man*, then, but instead of the word *the*. Even on Murray's ground, *he* must stand instead of *the man;* for *he* does not mean simply *man*, but *the man* before mentioned.

Besides, if pronouns stand instead of nouns previously expressed, what is to be done when the pronoun comes first? 'We the subscribers.' 'Who art thou?' What do *we* and *who* stand instead of in these sentences? Does not the first mean 'the we subscribers, or we persons the subscribers?' and does not the second mean, 'Who person art thou?' The latter sentence will not sound so awkward when it is recollected that our *who* is the Latin *Quis* or *quo*, which is an adjective, and generally has the noun expressed.

We cannot be so minute in regard to the other pronouns, although in some of them their adjective nature is more apparent than in *he*, which we selected because it is the example adduced by Mr. Murray. A few parallel sentences must suffice to illustrate our position.

I Paul, the apostle——*The I*-dentical Paul, the apostle.
Thou Lord of all——*The* Lord of all.
We, the editor——*The present* editor.
Ye hypocrites——*These* hypocrites.
He, John, is sick——*That** John is sick.
She, Sarah, agrees——*That* Sarah agrees.
They, owners, are brothers——*Those* owners are brothers.

**He* and *she* are acknowledged to be adjectives in such words as he-goat and she-goat, that is, *male* goat and *female* goat; and as *he* and *she* did not originally have distinct genders, this must be a somewhat modern application of the words. How unsettled the gender of *he*, *she*, and *it*, is, may be gathered from the fact that any neuter noun may be, and many are usually called *he* and *she*, without 'a figure of speech;' for this custom is rather an adherence to ancient usage than a modern rhetorical use of the pronouns. My carpenter always says of his saw, *she* cuts well; and the sailor who never heard of rhetoric, says of the anchor, *he* holds, and of the ship, *she* brings up. We all say, *It* was I, you, he, she, they; *It* was a *man*, *woman*, or tree. *It*, the same as *dit* French, *ditto* Italian, *dicto* Latin, *hit* Anglo-Saxon, means *said*, and, like our expression *the said*, may be applied to any gender. We shall leave our remarks upon the number and person of pronouns until we come to the verb. I, thou, we, ye, you, they, have no genders.

We do not assert that in these parallel expressions the words in italic have the *same meaning*, although we believe they come near it; but we do assert, that they are used in the same manner and for the same purpose, and, of course, must belong to the same class of words.

5. The words of our fifth class, with the exception of hers, ours, yours, and theirs, are called adjective pronouns by Mr. Murray. The four above named he calls the possessive case of the personal pronouns. We have shown that the possessive case of nouns is merely an adjective, and there is no reason why the deputy should not share the fate of its principal. *Mine* and *thine* are allowed, sometimes at least, to be adjectives. It would be very unaccountable if the possessives *singular* of *I*, and *thou* might be used as adjectives, while their *plural* possessives could not. This book is mine, this book is ours, this book is his, this book is theirs, this book is new. If it be said that *mine*, *his*, and *new* can be placed *before* the noun, but ours, yours, hers, theirs, cannot—I answer, that it is no condition of a word's becoming an adjective that it must be placed *before* a noun. Our pronouns are *all* borrowed from the Latin, where the adjective oftener follows than precedes the noun. Besides, there are other adjectives in English which always follow their nouns, as, A man *worth* a million—A prisoner quite *alone*, &c. If any more proof is wanted of these words being adjectives in their nature and use, let another adjective be substituted for them in the following sentences.

The injuries are *mine*—substitute, *great*.
The benefits were *thine*; ——— *small*.
The day is *yours*; ——— *cold*.
Liberty is *ours*; ——— *precious*.
The prize is *theirs*; ——— *valuable*.

We need not in these cases seek for a noun understood for the *pronouns* any more than for the acknowledged adjectives.

Besides, *mine*, *thine*, *his*, *its*, take their place before adjectives expressed, and there are but four that cannot be so placed; so that the *numbers* are equal, as far as that argument goes. Again, it must be recollected that ours, yours, hers, and theirs, should be written our's, your's, her's, their's,—as they actually were written in former days,—then recollect that the apostrophe and *s* in this case, as in the case of nouns, mean *add* or *join*, and you may place the words before the noun at once.

6. We have little to add to what we have already said on the subject of the fifth class; but cannot forbear remarking that we have lately been amused at a grave discussion of the question, whether it is more proper to say, the *Miss* Howards, or the Misses *Howard*. There can be no doubt that the words in the plural are nouns,

and the others adjectives. If we wish to distinguish the unmarried from the married Howards, we call them the *Miss* Howards: if we wish to distinguish these misses from other misses, we call them the Misses *Howard*, in which case, the word in italics is an adjective.

7. Under this head we class the present and past tenses of all regular verbs, when used without alteration, as adjectives. Perhaps we shall be better understood if we say that the past tense of regular verbs when used as an adjective, is what Murray calls the perfect participle. This, he says, has the nature of an adjective;—we believe it, and rank such words accordingly.

The 8th class includes what he calls the present participle of all verbs, and the perfect participle of all irregular verbs whose participles differ from the past tense. The participle is no more a part of the verb because formed from it, than an adjective is part of a noun from which it is formed; and there is as much propriety in calling such an adjective a participle, as in so calling an adjective formed from a verb. This, of course, will set aside the passive voice and all the compound tenses of verbs, but we prefer the English jackdaw in his plain suit of black, to the gaudy one bedecked with the borrowed finery of foreign peacocks.

INTELLIGENCE.

MR. G. F. THAYER'S SCHOOL, BOSTON.

At the conclusion of the exercise [described in the last Number of the Journal,] the bell strikes again, and five spelling monitors, each with his slate in hand, containing the list of a division of a class,* repair to as many semi-circular marks on the floor. Again the bell is rung, and the five divisions assemble at their posts. If any one should have forgotten his rank, the monitor gives it to him from his memorandum on the slate. At the fourth sound of the bell, the monitors of the lowest two divisions—who spell from spelling books, in which the pronunciation is sometimes doubtful to the pupils—begin by pronouncing the words of the lesson, while the boys of the class follow them looking over their books, and the other three monitors give out the words by the orthoepy of their dictionaries,—from which classes spell, as soon as they have become familiar with the contents of their *spelling books*. Each boy pronounces his word before spelling. If the lesson be short, it is spelled twice over; otherwise, only once. Every word missed in each class, is marked by its monitor, and a check made against the boy who failed; the latter office is generally performed by the boy standing at the head. The word is then put to the next below until it is spelled right, and the correct speller goes above those who fail, who all spell the word over, as evidence of attention in them. The boy who has taken precedence, then spells another word, that those who have lost their rank, may have a chance to recover it, and especially as *their* failure may have been a means of *his* gain, without any merit on his part, excepting that of spelling *differently* from them. Boys are required to spell *mentally* every word given out, that nothing in the lesson may escape them. This and many other of the details of the exercise, may be deemed trifles too inconsiderable to be mentioned; but they will all be found, on examination, to furnish good reasons for their adoption. Boys in class, having occasion to speak to their monitor, give a signal, and he listens to them. If any difficulty occurs, an appeal is made to the principal when the lesson is over. The spelling concluded, boys are required to write on their slates, all the words missed by their class, the monitor giving them out; by which means, those who spell, as many do, thoughtlessly, are obliged to *think* or they will fail. The slates are examined by the monitors, and due notice taken of the errors. Sometimes we require boys to learn the definitions of words repeatedly missed, and to copy them, *as we do those whose signification is not understood in the moral lesson*, into their writing books, the better to impress them on their memories. The boy at the head of each class, goes to the foot every morning before the lesson begins; and at the end of the week, he who has most frequently gained this distinction, receives a reward. Boys are degraded in class, for inattention or disorder, from one to the whole, according to the nature of the offence. Before boys leave the spelling stands, lessons are assigned for the following day, rank is marked, and the award made (a mark of 4 or otherwise) for the report.†

* There are in all four classes, at present subdivided into seven divisions: viz first class one, and each of the others, two.

† See the Table p. 565.

While these boys are spelling, a higher class moved by the same signal, repair to the *study*, to recite their day's lessons to one teacher; and the remainder of the class to which the spelling monitors belong, (for they are all usually appointed from one class for one week at a time,) return to their seats, and attend to ciphering. Another teacher moves from class to class, to ascertain that all is going on properly; a third engages himself in adjusting numerous little *unmentionables*, always found in a large school, and necessary to be kept in order; and the principal sets such writing copies as remain unprepared, or which require more particular attention.

To spelling, succeeds an exercise in mental Arithmetic, Geography, or Grammar, each of these having particular days assigned. One teacher takes a division of a class at one end of the hall, and another, one at the other end; while the remaining boys form a line in the aisle, and taking such apparatus as may be designated, move out of school in company, for gymnastic exercises. When the weather is suitable, they go, accompanied by the principal, to the Common, where they engage for about fifteen minutes, in running, hopping, jumping—with poles and without—leap-frog, drawing—or pulling by classes at the opposite ends of a rope, &c.—and, returning to the school, one of the teachers takes out such of the remaining boys as have been found correct in their lessons, for similar physical exercises in the open air. When the weather is not suitable for this, the boys go into the yard about the school, a class at a time, and take exercise by themselves as well as the space will allow. We have a plank placed edgewise and raised about eighteen inches from the ground, on which we require them to walk, to strengthen their legs and ankles, and gain the power of preserving equilibrium in narrow paths, &c. These sports are much enjoyed by boys, and are granted to none who have been found deficient in lessons or deportment during the morning. They are to be extended by the erection of such additional apparatus, as the limits about the establishment will permit. Besides our daily exercises, the principal, sometimes accompanied by an assistant, occasionally invites boys to meet him early in the morning, on the common or in the *mall*, where they engage in their usual sports or in walking. We have been several times to South Boston during the present season. We sometimes exercise them too, in school hours, in marching, with reference to the carriage of the body, turning out the toes, and such other matters in connection, as boys are most apt to fail in.

When boys re-enter school, their recitations are finished class by class. After which the principal gives them, or as many as time will allow, a drill in reading; and those who do not read in the morning, are generally heard in the afternoon. In teaching this too much neglected branch of education, he first reads to the pupil the portion assigned to him, and requires as close an imitation as possible; directing the class to give the utmost watchfulness, and allowing them to correct him as well as each other, in whatever they consider erroneous in pronunciation, pauses, emphasis, inflection, cadence, &c. Boys of the first class, who can mark their books expertly, take memorandums, and point out the faults at the close of the reading; others are permitted to correct aloud on the instant, which they highly enjoy, and by which they are rendered very vigilant. As very young children are liable to forget corrections made in pronunciation, &c words mispronounced by those of the lowest class, are marked by the teacher on a slate, and each child required at the close of the lesson, to pronounce over again all the words he had failed in, during the exercise. The hardest words in the reading books of the highest four divisions, are marked with a lead pencil, constantly one lesson in advance, and boys are required to learn their meanings, between one reading day and the next; so as either to substitute a synonyme for each, while reading, or afterward to give a brief definition that shall apply to the passage.

The time not occupied in class, is filled up by ciphering, or in learning extra lessons for recitation; and by some, more backward than their classes, in redeeming rank or lost lessons. Only two class lessons for study are given in a day; so that those who are practising the whole course, learn—for example—two lessons in Geography, two in Grammar, and two in Mental Arithmetic in the week; and

when History is studied, it takes the place of one of these. Spelling is a daily lesson, except for Mondays, when composition, takes the place of it, every week with the first class, and every second week with the second class. Boys prove their most palpable grammatical errors in composition, by parsing the sentence.

The afternoons are devoted principally to writing. Spare time with the boys is occupied by arithmetic, and the principal either exercises those in reading, who were omitted in the morning, or examines such as are thought to be backward, in various studies, without preparation or previous notice. We have as many of the exercises performed by writing as possible, confident that instruction conveyed through the medium of the eye, makes the most durable impression on the mind. As far as practicable, while writing their copies, a small boy sits on the *right* of one larger and more advanced, who directs him about the manner of sitting, holding his pen, and the general formation of the letters; who, in short, performs the office of a writing monitor to his single pupil. A teacher walks from row to row, inspecting the whole, and in the course of each copy, sometimes every two, four, or six lines, and the more or less often according to the habits of the boy—the most careless requiring the most frequent examinations—calls to his desk by signal, every boy, that he may point out faults, commend beauties, and, writing in the pupil's book, excite him to emulate his master. Very great care and constant watchfulness, are necessary in this department, as good writing depends on a variety of trifling circumstances. And if boys are aware that they may be often called upon to exhibit their work for approbation or censure, their attention will be kept awake, and their progress will be more certain and rapid.—That they may be compelled to imitate their copy or slip, every one is directed to point the fore finger of the left hand, at the letter to be made, and as it moves along the line, the eye *must* take in each one so pointed out, and the boy can hardly fail to write like his model. Boys of eleven years old are required to mend their own pens, and younger ones are encouraged to do so—many of whom do.

Fridays, from ten in the morning, are devoted to declamation. Before learning their pieces, boys read them to the principal, who marks them for emphasis, modulation, rhetorical pauses, &c. that they may be committed with reference to the *sense*. From this hour recitations are attended to out of the hall, generally in the *study*, and being heard in single classes, they occupy the greatest part of the day. During recitations, any error detected by a boy below the one reciting gains him precedence, by his giving a silent signal of it, and waiting to be called on by the teacher to make the correction; unless it is as soon discovered by a higher boy who is likewise below the reciter, in which case HE *goes up*.

All unnecessary wandering is prohibited, and any boy having occasion to leave his seat, holds up his hand until a teacher beckons him to him, to learn his wants. As teachers are almost always engaged in talking to pupils or hearing lessons, the boy called out is not allowed to *speak*, but presents his request in writing, previously prepared on his slate. This has the threefold advantage of preventing noise, practising in writing, and introducing a general acquaintance with familiar English composition. This method is pursued as far as practicable; but every one's mind will present cases in which the regulation must be waived. Sometimes it is necessary for one boy to speak to another; he then gets permission in this way, and both repair silently and quietly to a point appropriated to such conferences, which they quit as soon as their business is accomplished. This indulgence, however, is granted as seldom as possible. The necessity of the arrangement arises from the existence of so many sources of privilege in school; it is obvious, that if a boy were allowed to speak in his place, there might be four couple talking at the same time, each having had leave from one of the four masters. But as two boys only are suffered to be at the *speaking-stand* at once, permission is never granted to another while these are engaged there.

Boys having been absent from school, or tardy, or wishing to go home before the regular hour, are required to bring notes from parents or guardians. A reasonable apology from the same source, in writing, likewise secures from recitations or *deficient marks*.

Boys are dismissed individually, each having first given an account of his day's performances; being called by classes, alphabetically, from first to fourth on one day, and the order reversed on the next. Those deficient in exercises are detained until they have learned them, together with their lessons for the following day. Any boy who has had four or more low marks—below* four or *par*—in a week, is detained each day of the week following, until the lessons of the succeeding day are committed, to prevent a repetition of the fault.

Punishments are generally detention beyond school hours, loss of play, and low marks on weekly reports; but, although we do not shrink from inflicting judicious punishment where it is necessary, our chief regulating power is rewards; the assignment of which we have reduced to a system. As the reports, of which a copy is annexed, are distributed weekly, those of a quarter usually amount to thirteen; which, if they should all be *good*, *i. e.* if the aggregate *obtained* in each amounts to as many as that *required*, the holder is entitled to prize No. 1. If there should be twelve good, he is entitled to prize No. 2. And so on, down to nine good ones, which receive the lowest prize, No. 5. In pursuance of this arrangement, the pupils of the two schools receive about fifty volumes of books per quarter, besides some which are occasionally distributed, for extraordinary success or uncommon exertion. The system has been in operation about two years, and its effects have been of the most pleasing and satisfactory kind. The mark of a *deviation*, which reduces the chance of obtaining these rewards, is generally considered a greater punishment, than the long established quantum of '*four claps*' on the hand; and has introduced a degree of order and correctness in exercises, that the rod would have failed to produce among the generality of boys. In extreme cases, however, corporeal infliction is still resorted to, but seldom to any considerable extent. Expulsion has been substituted, when the conduct has been flagrant. This has happened, on an average, about once a year, and has generally been for lying, profaneness, or great disrespect for school authority; the first and last of which are almost invariably associated, and not unfrequently the second. Since the rod was laid aside as no longer an instrument of frequent use, the school has, I think, been growing more and more pure. I will not say, this is a consequence of its disuse, but only state the simple fact: for it seems to me, that there are cases in all large schools, *where boys do not live under the teacher's roof*, and are not consequently always within his control, in which *stripes only* will avail; and happy indeed should I be to learn some other method of reducing a certain class of tempers—few and of as rare occurrence as they are—which eleven years' experience has convinced me, will resist every soft and gentle application; whose sensibility can only be awakened by corporeal pain; and, whose obstinacy can only be subdued by the pedagogue's *last resort*.

The vacations are very similar to those of the English High school, and the Latin schools of this city.

Terms —$ 45 a year, including stationary, the use of all the books studied in the school, and every other expense attending it.

Such, sir, are the details of my *all-day* school; the *intermediate*, though somewhat dissimilar, as it occupies but two hours in the day, would probably furnish nothing worth presenting to your readers.

I intend after the Commencement vacation, to introduce as much of the system of mutual instruction as may be done to the advantage of the school, still retaining all that is useful in the foregoing sketch. Any suggestions from you or your correspondents presenting improvements in the important art of teaching, would, I doubt not, be received with gratitude by your other readers, as well as by,

Yours truly,

G. F. THAYER.

Harvard Place, June 15, 1826.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

* See Table.

WEEKLY REPORT, referred to in page 561.

MASTER A. B.		Reading.	Spelling.	Writing.	Arithmetic.	Grammar.	Geography.	Composition.	History.	Declamation.	Industry.	Department.	Punctuality.	Attendance.
* No. 10.	MONDAY.	4	5	4	3½		5	4			4	4	4	2
Four denotes the exercise to be properly performed; higher numbers denote excellence; lower, deficiency.	TUESDAY.	4½	4	4	5	4					4	4	4	2
The marks under the head *Attendance*, signify the number of times the pupil was at school. Four with a star [4*] shows the reduction from a higher number, for some deviation.	WEDNESDAY	3½	4*	4	4				4		4	3	4	2
	THURSDAY.		3½				4				3½	4	4	1
	FRIDAY.		5	5	4	4				5	4	4	4	2
Reports are numbered according to the week in the quarter.	SATURDAY.		6						4½		4	4	3	1
Result.	Required,	12	24	16	16	8	8	4	8	4	24	24	24	10
	Obtained,	12	2½	17	16½	8	9	4	8½	5	23½	23	23	10

Harvard-place, Saturday, June 10, 1826. G. F. THAYER.

COLLEGE IN PHILADELPHIA.

Report of the preparatory Committee.

The committee appointed at the town meeting held the 4th instant, to digest and report 'a plan for a college, where English literature, the sciences, and the liberal arts, shall be fully taught, unconnected with the Greek and Latin, and for admission into which there shall be no prerequisite of having studied these languages,' beg leave to report:

That the former meeting having unanimously determined upon the expediency of establishing such a College, your committee do not deem it necessary now to occupy the time of this meeting, in enforcing the many cogent arguments in its favor; they cannot, however, pass by the subject without expressing their opinion, that the contemplated plan of instruction will be an important public benefit. It has for its object the enlightening of a large and valuable class of the community, in those branches of learning which are most important to their future prosperity and usefulness; and the scheme, if carried into successful operation, will form a new era in the science of education.

Your committee, in complying with the resolution to digest and report a plan for the proposed College, do not feel themselves called upon to enter into minute particulars; they will only furnish such a general outline, as will render the plan perspicuous to their fellow citizens. To do this, the following topics must be noticed.

I. The branches in which instruction is proposed to be given.
II. The expense of tuition.
III. The number of pupils.
IV. The funds.
V. The manner in which the College shall be governed.

I. *The branches in which instruction is proposed to be given.*

With respect to this, your committee deprecate the idea of superficial instruction in any branch of learning. They are decidedly of opinion, that the plan ought to embrace every branch of knowledge that is required for the agriculturist, the scientific mechanic or manufacturer, the architect, the civil engineer, the merchant, or other complete man of business. Every thing embraced in a complete English education should be comprehended. The pupils should be rendered familiar with the principles of grammar, with vulgar and decimal arithmetic, as an introduction to the mathematics, and with belles lettres, in order that they may write their own language correctly and perspicuously. Geography, history, (in which that of our own country shall be prominent,) and chronology, are also deemed essential branches of knowledge, and should be fully taught.

Among the sciences which it is proposed to include, your committee accord the highest rank to the mathematics, a branch of learning which is not only a most effective instrument of discipline to the mind, but also forms the basis of almost every science necessary to the operative classes of society, and which, notwithstanding, has rarely been placed within their reach, and has been too often taught in a very inadequate manner. Your committee have frequently witnessed the comparative ease with which the mathematician solves the most abstruse questions connected with the arts; the difficulties in their business that are daily encountered by some of our most valuable citizens, for want of having studied the mathematics in early life; the valuable time and money that have been wasted upon projects which a very moderate share of knowledge of this master science would have determined to be fruitless; and are persuaded that many useful inventions and improvements have been either retarded or totally lost for want of mathematical information; they are therefore of opinion, that in the proposed College every branch of the mathematics should be fully and completely taught.

Natural philosophy, including mechanics and astronomy, is indispensable to the course of education proposed. If your committee do not dwell upon this point, it is because they deem its importance duly appreciated by the public.

Next in order of usefulness to men of business, are the sciences of chemistry and mineralogy. These, your committee recommend to be carefully taught, with particular attention to those parts that are connected with the arts.

An apprentice to a mechanical business, possessing this precious knowledge, will be the better qualified to receive instruction in all the processes already known; and the young farmer, master mechanic, or manufacturer, who shall combine this knowledge with that of his profession, will enjoy peculiar advantages; he will not only be enabled to carry on his business in the most economical and perfect manner, but will discover new and valuable improvements. Your committee therefore consider the teaching of chemistry and mineralogy, particularly as connected with the arts, as indispensable to this plan of education.

Your committee have often witnessed with pain the deficiencies under which many of our valuable mechanics labor for want of some knowledge of drawing; they are therefore of opinion that the principles of perspective and mechanical and architectural drawing should be taught in this College.

Book-keeping should also be taught in the best manner; and, in the opinion of your committee, political economy, and the general principles of government, and jurisprudence, should not be neglected, in the education of those who may be called upon to fill the important offices of arbitrators, jurors, justices of the peace, legislators, &c.

As it is presumed that this seminary will be resorted to by many intended for commercial and other pursuits which require a knowledge of the living languages, the German, French, and Spanish, ought not to be neglected. Pennsylvania justly boasts of her hardy, honest, and industrious German population: in some counties, it is so numerous that the German is more generally spoken than the English language. The French has become almost a universal language; and the deep interest we take in the affairs of the neighboring republics to the south, and the increasing intercourse between their citizens and ours, call aloud for a cultivation of the knowledge of the Spanish tongue.

These are the prominent features of the course of instruction proposed to be pursued in the College; but your committee by this enumeration by no means wish to be understood as excluding other branches, which the wisdom of the Professors or Trustees may suggest; provided they shall not be incompatible with the general plan.

Your committee are of opinion, that every part of education merely ornamental, should be excluded. Whatever is taught in the College ought to be taught in the best manner; and pains should be taken to impress upon the pupils the necessity of a thorough knowledge of the various branches which they undertake to acquire. It ought to be a rule, inflexibly observed, that the honors of the institution shall never be conferred, except on those who really merit them by their conduct and attainments, whatever may be the length of time they may have spent in the schools.

II. *The expense of tuition.*

Your committee are of opinion that a leading feature in the plan of education proposed, should be *economy*. With this view it is recommended that the compensation to the professors and teachers, and the price of tuition, shall always be fixed by the trustees. These being disinterested persons, will be able to attract and secure the services of competent instructers by a fair remuneration; and at the same time to keep the instruction within the reach of those whom Providence has not blessed with affluence.

III. *The number of pupils.*

The number should be as great as can be accommodated. As the influence of the institution on society will be felt, in proportion to the number instructed, its advantages should be diffused as widely as possible. In all those branches of learning taught by lectures, the same expense must be incurred for professors, lecture room, and apparatus, whatever may be the number of the class. It follows that as the number of pupils increases the price of tuition may be diminished.

Your committee are not prepared to recommend the adoption of the monitorial system of education in all its parts; but they are of opinion that it contains many excellent features, which it will be expedient to adopt in the college.

IV. *The Funds.*

This is a most important part of the plan, and has commanded a corresponding attention from your committee.

The revenue of the College must be drawn from the three following sources, viz:

1. The emoluments arising from the tuition of pupils.
2. Donations and bequests from patriotic individuals.
3. Legislative endowment.

The first, although a moderate, will be a certain source of revenue. If by the adoption, in part, of the monitorial system, the number of pupils can be multiplied, it will furnish a sum equal to all the *ordinary* calls on the college.

Upon the second source of revenue your committee place considerable reliance. In public spirit this city and liberties are by no means deficient, and as the object proposed is one of a highly meritorious character, it cannot be doubted that it will meet with the usual liberality.

Your committee are of opinion, that although the sums at first contributed may be small, yet they feel confident that when the usefulness of the institution shall be generally known, liberal donations and bequests will be conferred upon it. They recommend that a committee for each ward and township be appointed to collect subscriptions, and that the funds first raised, be expended in a library, models and apparatus.

Third, Legislative endowment. In a sister state a seminary resembling the present, in its leading features, has been projected by a board of commissioners especially appointed by the legislature for the purpose. This board has recommended a legislative endowment of $30,000, which, there is reason to believe, either has been or will be appropriated; and your committee are proud to say, that in point of liberality to institutions of real utility, Pennsylvania is second to no state in the Union. The second section of the seventh article of our state constitution contemplates the *general teaching of the sciences;* and a hope is indulged, that the legislature will regard this as a proper season to act upon this long neglected section. Your committee therefore recommend a memorial on the subject, to be prepared to be laid before the legislature at the opening of their next session.

V. *The manner in which the college shall be governed.*

There should be a board of trustees to consist of eighteen members.

This board should have the appointment of professors and teachers, &c. and the making of all by-laws for the government of the colleges.

Thomas Cadwalader, Peter A. Browne, James Taylor, James Espy, Mathew L. Carey, Clement G. Biddle, Samuel Colhoun, Thomas P. Jones, Joseph R. Chandler, Anthony Finley, Mark Richards, Jonathan W. Condy.

AMERICAN ANNUAL REGISTER.

G. and C. Carvill, New York, propose to publish an American Annual Register embracing a view of the History, Politics, and Literature of each year, in an octavo volume, containing about eight hundred pages.

It will not be confined to an account of American affairs, but will comprehend all relating to the history of Europe, which can interest the scholar and the statesman.

The history of our own affairs will be brought down in each year to about the beginning of July, while that of Europe will correspond to the ordinary annual division.

By this arrangement, time will be afforded to conclude the accounts of Euro-

pean transactions for the preceding year, and to give the proceedings of Congress and of the state Legislatures in each volume, in a complete form.

A second part of the Register will be appropriated to official documents; and in a third division will be inserted such Biographical sketches and Literary Essays as possess general and permanent interest.

A fourth part will be devoted to an account of promotions in the Army, and Navy, changes in the Diplomatic corps, &c.

Conditions. The work will be published in the month of August, of each year, in one volume of about eight hundred pages, handsomely printed on fine paper.—Price five dollars, payable on delivery.

[To Instructers and others who are desirous of promoting *practical* education, we would suggest the above work as likely to meet their views. It will do more, probably, than any other single volume to produce intelligent pupils in those departments of education which embrace the information wanted for the actual purposes of life. Teachers will find it easy to introduce this, or any other work above the usual price of school books, by procuring a single copy, and after forming a class for the use of it, letting the pupils read from it in turn; whilst all listen, with a view to be interrogated on it, after the reading has been continued as long as the teacher thinks advantageous.]

JUVENILE MISCELLANY.

It is proposed to publish in Boston a periodical work for young people, entitled as above, and to be conducted by the Author of "Evenings in New England." 'Such a work has prospered in England; and many, who are well acquainted with the wants of children, suppose that a similar one would be useful and successful here. The number of good books for children is not so great as would seem at first view; and there is a daily increasing demand for information and amusement in this form. The Miscellany is intended to comprise every variety of composition, which can possibly be made instructive or entertaining, to the intermediate ages from five to fifteen. It will be composed of stories, intended to convey moral and religious instruction; biographical sketches; scientific dialogues, made as plain and simple as possible; fanciful adventures; poetry; fables; riddles, &c. Several ladies, whose productions are deservedly high in public estimation, will, probably, contribute. 108 pages 18mo. will be printed once in two months; which at the close of a year, would form three neat volumes for a juvenile library.

Conditions. The work shall be executed on good paper—new type—with two or more engravings adapted to subjects in each number.

Price two dollars per year—payable on delivery of the third number.'

[A work such as the above, and in the hands of female writers, promises, we think, to afford much instruction and entertainment to the class of readers for whose use it is intended. At this early stage of the undertaking, it is not, perhaps, in the power of the editor to lay down very distinctly the line of proceeding which will be adopted. But her talents in the department in which she has already presented herself so successfully to the public, afford ample assurance that the Miscellany will be conducted in such a manner as to reflect credit on herself and the community. A hasty perusal of the first number confirms us in this opinion.]

MAP OF BOSTON.

Messrs. Annin & Smith, and Mr. J. V. N. Throop, of this city, have published a Map of Boston, with corrections brought down to the date of publication, by S. P. Fuller, surveyor.

[We would invite the attention of parents and teachers to this map as furnishing the means of pleasing and useful instruction to children. The following course has been satisfactorily pursued with two young pupils.—The map is spread on a table, or suspended on the wall, according to convenience; and the pupils

trace out, slowly and carefully, the various streets which constitute a single ward of the city. They then take their morning's walk, so as to pass through every street in that ward; and when they return home, they execute first on their slates, and afterwards on paper, as accurate a map of the ward as they can furnish from memory; correcting and filling it up more exactly, afterwards, by the help of the engraved map. In this way, the children become familiarly acquainted with every part of the city, and are prepared to listen intelligently to any conversation or reading in which a local reference occurs. This minute and practical application in early life, lays the foundation of good mental habits in every department where close investigation or accurate information, is of any value. Besides, these exercises in topography are highly entertaining as well as instructive, and give scope to the natural vivacity and activity of childhood,—they are connected too with healthful physical recreation.

If, as is to be hoped, the author of the History of Boston shall publish an abridged edition of that work, adapted to the use of families and schools, a pleasing course of instruction in local history may be combined with the above exercise; as many of the streets of Boston contain buildings and other objects of great historical interest connected with important events in the history of the country.

In the meantime every parent or teacher who possesses the larger History, can furnish orally the instruction which will be required.

A book embracing lessons of this sort for children will be published soon by Wait, Greene, & Company.]

ABSTRACT OF RETURNS FROM THE SCHOOL COMMITTEES OF MASSACHUSETTS.

[Mr. Bangs, the Secretary of the Commonwealth, has, in compliance with the order of the General Court, published the abovementioned document.

The form of the Abstract renders the insertion of it in our pages impracticable. We will return, however, at a convenient opportunity, to the substance of its contents, and in the meantime would lay before our readers the Secretary's prefatory Remarks.]

Most of the Returns are incomplete, and many vary from the form prescribed in the Act. This rendered it difficult to reduce them to an Abstract; but pains have been taken to give the substance of the Returns as correctly as possible. Where blanks are left in any column, there was no report or observation of the Committee under that head, or their remarks were so general and indefinite that they could not be brought into an Abstract, and did not admit of arithmetical computation. Such is particularly the case with the reports under the head of 'time of keeping school in the year.' In many instances, the Return states that the schools are kept 'from *six* to *twelve* months,' &c. Others give the average time of the districts, or the time for each district separately; but a majority give the aggregate of all the districts in town, some stating the total amount in years, some in months, and some in weeks. In forming this Abstract, the mode of stating the aggregate in months has been adopted, where it could be determined with probable correctness; but in many instances it was quite uncertain whether the average or aggregate amount was intended in the Return, and in all such cases a blank has been left. This column, being so incomplete and uncertain in its calculations, has not been cast up.

It will be perceived by the notes at the bottom of the Abstract, and by an examination of the Returns, that under the head of 'estimated number of Pupils in private Schools,' there is much uncertainty and want of uniformity. Most towns return only those who do not attend at all in the public schools, but some return those who attend partly on public and partly on private schools, and who have been stated in preceding columns, as among the pupils in the public schools.

Under the head of 'estimated amount of private school tuition fees,' there is also some ambiguity. In several instances the amount paid for extending public schools beyond their regular term is included; and it is probable this is the case in other instances where it is not mentioned.

The two last columns of the Returns are very imperfect. Many of the committees complain of the difficulty of obtaining correct information in these particulars, and that, as to the last particularly, viz: 'number of persons over 14 years, unable to read and write,' it was an affair of delicacy to make the necessary inquiries. Some of them state that, in the number returned, are old persons whose inability is the effect of bodily infirmity. There is also a great complaint of deficiency in school books, among the children of poor parents, although few are wholly prevented from attending school on that account. Some returns, it will be seen, do not designate the ages and sexes of the pupils. The total number thus returned is 2847, which added to the footing of the six columns in the Abstract, makes the whole number of pupils in the public schools, 74,006.

Accompanying many of the Returns, are pertinent remarks of the School Committees, on the condition and prospects of the Schools, which cannot be here given.

GRAMMAR SCHOOL OF GLASGOW, SCOTLAND.

Since the appointment of the Rector, (1815,) the business of the school is conducted in the following manner. The hours of attendance are from 10 till noon, and from 1 till 3 o'clock, afternoon, except on Saturdays, when there is only one meeting, from 10 till noon. Prayers are said by each of the Masters in their respective class rooms, at the commencement of the morning meeting.

The Boys draw tickets for places three times, and are examined eight times in the year, by a Committee of the Town Council, Clergy and Professors. Their places are carefully marked on all these occasions, and their *average rank* in the Class is calculated from these examinations. As there are no particular days fixed for the examinations, the Masters and Scholars require always to be prepared. In 1824–5, places were drawn for in October, February and July, and the examinations took place on 19th November, 19th January, 25th February, 5th April, 6th May, 3d June, 2d September, and 30th September.

At a meeting of the Committee on the Grammar School, in October, 1786, when several of the Professors, and all the Masters of the School were present, the books fixed to be used for the first year, are the Rudiments, and a little of Cordery; second year, more of Cordery, Nepos, part of Grammatical Exercises, or Mair's Introduction; third year, more of Mair, (or the Exercises,) with Cæsar and Ovid; fourth year, Sallust, Virgil, and part of Horace, continuing, this last year, such parts of Ruddiman's Grammar, &c. as may appear needful. Valpy's Delectus, Eutropius, Phædrus' Fables, and Buchanan's Psalms, have occasionally been introduced. Prosody has been of late much more attended to than formerly; one meeting a-week is generally devoted to reading the Scriptures, and another to some abridged History of Scotland, England, Rome, or Greece, according to the stage which the class may have attained to in its course. For some years, Moor's Greek Grammar, or most of it, and sometimes a little of the Greek Testament, have been taught in the afternoon's meeting, in the fourth year.

In the Rector's class, the higher Latin Classics are read one meeting a-day; the other meeting is appropriated to the Greek language. In the former, the authors chiefly read are, Virgil, Livy and Horace: in the latter, besides learning the Greek Grammar, the boys generally read through the Greek Exercises and Extracts, used at College, and write many passages in the Exercises. When boys are very young, they sometimes remain over a year in the Rector's Class, and mingle with the rest, generally doing extra work among the higher scholars, as stated in the Notices printed annually. Some years the number has been such as to induce the Rector to form these into a class by themselves; and then parts of Cicero, Tacitus, or Terence, have been read, as also more of Homer, Xenophon, &c. after finishing the Greek Extracts. In order to overtake Geography, Antiquities, Mythology, &c. the Rector has some years held an extra daily meeting with his class before breakfast, during the summer months. This article on the business of the School, has been submitted to, and corrected by the

Rector, to whom, and to the other Masters, it is no more than justice to say, that their learning, experience, fidelity and industry, entitle them to the entire confidence of the public.

The vacation, lasting generally from five to six weeks, commences in the beginning of June, and ends in the middle of July. In addition to which there are the following holidays. From Wednesday afternoon, till Tuesday morning, at the Spring and Winter Sacraments. Christmas day, Newyear's day, Candlemas day, May day, King's birth day, Deacons' choosing day, and two or three days (at the discretion of the Lord Provost) after the annual examination. The last Friday of January is a holiday of very old standing. From a remote period it has been customary for one student from each of the four Nations* in the Natural Philosophy Class in the College, to repair to the Grammar School towards the end of January, and, in Latin, request a holiday for the boys on the last Friday of that month. In return for this compliment, four of the boys in the Rector's Class repair to the College in the last week in January, and in the same language ask a holiday for the Students, first of the Principal, by calling at his house, and afterwards of the several Professors, by entering their halls, when the classes are convened. It is needless to add, that these juvenile orators are politely received, and their request granted. When a holiday falls on Friday, there is no meeting on the following day.

At the close of the Session, usually the last week in September, or beginning of October, Prizes are distributed for merit and good attendance, by the Lord Provost, who, on this very interesting occason, appears in full court dress, sword, &c. The interest which the public takes in this exhibition, is so great, that it has been found necessary to use one of the churches, the under part being occupied by the Magistrates, the Committee, the Masters, who appear in their gowns, and the Scholars, and the gallery by parents and their families. After a prayer has been said by one of the Rev. Members of the Committee, the Convener gives a summary of what has been done in the School, during the past year. Greek, Latin and English Books, in elegant bindings, are then distributed. Prizes for merit are given to one fourth part of the Boys in each class, who ranked highest on the average of the eight examinations, and for good attendance to those who have not been absent from any meeting of the school. On 3d October, 1825, 138 Prizes were given for Scholarship. For not being absent from any meeting of the school, during the year, Prizes were given to 255 Boys—and for not being absent from any meeting, during five years, Prizes were given to eleven Boys. Besides these books from the Corporation, gold and silver Medals are also given. The annual value of Prize Books, on an average of the ten years, since the formation of the Rector's Class, is £96 : 17 : 8. *Historical Account of the Grammar School of Glasgow.*

BOSTON PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

The Annual Visitation of the Public Schools of this city was made on Wednesday last by the Mayor and Aldermen, and other members of the School Committee, accompanied by the President of the United States, Admiral Sir Isaac Coffin, Honorable Mr. Biddle, President of the bank of the United States, Honorable Mr. Saltonstall of Essex, Mr. Seaton, Editor of the National Intelligencer, the President and Professors of Harvard University, the clergy of this and neighboring towns, and numerous National, State, and Municipal officers and functionaries. Notwithstanding the time allotted to the exhibitions of some of the schools was so short, as not to admit of full justice being done to the Institution, the Instructers, or the Pupils, the exhibitions were highly satisfactory to the visiters, and those parents who had an opportunity to witness the progress of their children.

[The particular methods of instruction adopted in these schools, would, we think, be interesting matter for the pages of the Journal. The account of the Public Latin School given in our 5th and 6th Nos. will be followed by articles on the other public schools of the city.]

* In the above passage an allusion is made to the classification of the students according to their respective places of nativity.

NOTICES.

WORKS IN THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.

A History of the American Revolution: intended as a Reading Book for Schools. By Samuel Williams, LL. D. New-Haven, 1824. 12mo. pp. 204.

The following extracts from the preface will serve to give an idea of the design and plan of this work.

'That the rising generation be made acquainted with the leading events which produced our separation from the crown of Great Britain, and our establishment as an independent nation, is an object of the utmost importance.

While in our schools and seminaries of learning, the rising generation are taught those branches of literature which are to fit them for the various duties to be performed under the government, either as officers or private citizens, a history of the origin and principles of that government should not be neglected. A work of this kind has long been wanted in our common schools—and to supply this defect, the present volume is intended. It was written as early as the year 1795; but was never before published, except in the monthly numbers of a periodical work of that day. From its early date, and the acknowledged correctness of Dr. Williams as a historian, it may be considered as a true and faithful narrative.

The publisher has spared no pains to make a proper division of the subject into chapters and sections, the better to fit it for the purpose for which it was intended —a reading-book for our common schools. We have also added, at the close of the volume, several orders and addresses of Gen. Washington, and other documents published at the conclusion of the war; together with the Constitution of the United States, and all the amendments which have been made to that instrument since its first adoption. These additions, it is hoped, will contribute to render the work still more useful and interesting.'

The idea of collecting Dr. Williams' papers on the revolution, and forming them into a school-book, was, we think, a happy and judicious one. The events which are thus detached for a moment from the body of American history, are well entitled to a separate attention; they form, in fact, of themselves, an interesting whole, highly entertaining and instructive. This useful volume is one which, we hope, will be adopted in every school.

The style of the work is chaste and correct, intelligible to children, and captivating by its natural simplicity. The moral and political tone of the writer is moderate, and avoids every useless amplification of circumstances which, in the hands of some authors, are so managed as to produce in the bosom of the young reader an exasperated resentment towards the land of his fathers. School-books like this, are admirably adapted to cherish a manly independence of spirit, and an enlightened patriotism. They furnish the means of inspiring the minds of youth with an early interest in the institutions of their country, and with a knowledge of their duties as citizens.

This work is intended for common schools; but the style in which it is executed is vastly inferior to what it deserves from its intrinsic importance, and its literary merits. Better paper and neater cuts, would make it worthy of a place in any school, and would introduce it, perhaps, into families, where the interest of the story, and the simplicity of the style, will certainly make it welcome as a book for children.

Richardson's American Reader.—The American Reader, a selection of Lessons for Reading and Speaking, wholly from American authors, embracing a great variety of entertaining subjects of history, biography, divinity, laws, natural and moral philosophy, and of other branches of useful and elegant learning.—Furnishing numerous Specimens of American Eloquence: From the Presidential Chair, the Head Quarters of the Military Commander, the Seat in Congress, the Pulpit on various occasions, the Bench of the Judge, the Bar, Stations of Literary Honor, the Seats of the Muses, and from the Shades of Private Life.—Containing Rules for the proper use of the Pauses, for graceful and persuasive Pronunciation, and for appropriate and impressive Gesture; to improve the Scholar in Reading and Speaking, while enriching the Mind with religious, virtuous, and useful Knowledge, designed for the use of Schools.—By Joseph Richardson, A. M. Third edition. Boston. 1823. 12mo. pp. 192.

A separate selection from American authors only, may we think, afford a pleasant and a useful variety in reading lessons. We should feel strongly inclined, however, to question the utility of such a selection, if used to the exclusion of a wide range of classical English authors. The tendency of such an arrangement would be at once to cramp and adulterate the style of American youth, in their exercises in written composition. For the style of school-books will, after all, influence, favorably or otherwise, that which the pupil falls into, when he is grown up.

An exclusive use of the Reader, however, was not, we presume, anticipated by the author.—As to the general merits of this book there can be no question. The subjects of the lessons are judiciously selected; and the style is generally creditable to the compiler's taste, as well as to the talents of the writers from whom the selection is made.

Useful information and sound moral instruction characterise most of the pieces contained in this volume; and the names of their respective authors are a guaranty that no sentiment is inculcated, but what is worthy of an early place in the minds of those who are advancing to take their places in life as American citizens.

The Rational Guide to Reading and Orthography: being an attempt to improve the Arrangement of Words in English Spelling Books, and to adapt the Reading Lessons to the comprehension of those for whom they are intended. By William B. Fowle, Instructer of the Monitorial School, Boston. Boston, 1821. 18mo. pp. 160.

That Mr. Fowle has been very successful in this as well as his other attempts to lay a good foundation of early instruction, is proved not only by the general sale of this book, but by its adoption in the primary schools of this city.

The matter and the arrangement of this little volume possess much of originality: both are happily adapted to the capacity of young children, and are excellently suited to aid a gradual and sure progress in the principles of reading.

One of the greatest merits perhaps of the Rational Guide is the minute attention which the author has judiciously bestowed on the department of pronunciation. This part of the work will be found very serviceable in places where the style of pronouncing has not yet received a systematic attention.

The reading lessons which are interspersed with the columns, are simple and intelligible; they are all written in a very interesting style; and many of them convey useful moral instruction.

From a pretty extensive acquaintance with similar school-books issued from the English press, we are enabled to make a comparison which is highly favorable

to Mr. Fowle's. There is no work of the kind, as far as we know, which is equally well adapted to the use of beginners in reading and spelling; or which an instructer may use with so much advantage and pleasure.

BOOKS FOR CHILDREN.

Jane and her Teacher; or the Sunday School of Ellington. By the author of 'George Wilson and his Friend.' Salem, 1825. 18mo. pp. 72.

George Wilson and his Friend; or Godliness is profitable for all things. By the author of 'Jane and her Teacher.' First American Edition. Salem, 1825. 18mo. pp. 108.

These little volumes bespeak not only a heart ardently engaged in Sunday School instruction, and earnestly desirous of imbuing the young mind with a sincere and deep-felt piety,—but exhibit, throughout, no ordinary talent and skill in the management of a story for children.

Here and there the reader finds moral scenes of great beauty and power, such as cannot but leave a lasting and beneficial impression on the mind of all classes of children, but especially of such as attend Sunday schools. To them these volumes have a peculiar interest; as they are very judiciously written so as to embrace a series of Sunday school incidents, with their appropriate lessons of religious instruction.

ANSWERS TO CORRESPONDENTS.

Received since our last:

An article on Moral Education, to which we shall give an early place.

An account of Washington College, Connecticut.

Account of Public Libraries in Europe.

School Books, &c.

Leavitt's Easy Lessons; Second Book for Primary Schools; Scott's Lessons, (Collier's Edition;) United States Spelling Book; Lessons from the Bible; Cardell's Elements of English Grammar; Blair's Lectures, (Worcester's edition;) Bossut's French Phrase Book; Sunday Evening Lectures; Juvenilia.

An intelligent and zealous correspondent writes as follows.

To the Editor.

I know not what interest you may feel in knowing the opinions which are entertained and expressed by the friends and patrons of your Journal, respecting the manner in which it is conducted; but I will hazard stating a remark which several of my friends and correspondents have made, and which appears to me not destitute of truth. It is said that the Journal wants a more definite character: that it is too much a collection of facts with regard to what is doing in the business of Education, without any guide to distinguish what is praiseworthy from what is censurable. But a very small proportion of our community are prepared to admit with Capt. Partridge that a knowledge of military tactics is the most precious of all attainments,—or to think that certain late invectives against the inductive method of teaching, are entitled to any consideration. Now, it is not credited by any one, that you believe the sentiments expressed by these and many other writers in the Journal, to be consistent with a good mode of instruction. What is wanted, is that the work should possess some definite character; that the ed-

itor should have some acknowledged principles, by which the value of other principles shall be determined.'

To the above complaints the editor would offer the following answer.

If the charge of want of definite character is meant to intimate merely that the various articles of which the Journal consists, do not speak precisely the same language, it only repeats the well known fact that among the many individuals who have turned their attention to the subject of education, there is not a perfect similarity of opinion as to the best method of effecting what in all cases is equally desired—the improvement of instruction.

In this country, at least, if not throughout the world, the question of the best methods of instruction is but in the stage of discussion, and to aid such discussion was one important object in view in establishing the Journal. To accelerate the fair and proper decision of a question, no course is more conducive than that of free discussion, and full hearing on all sides. The editor is not without his own opinions and predilections on this subject:—they may be expressed in very few words. The editor's views on the *theory* of education are those which are developed in Professor Jardine's Outlines of Philosophical Education, and which were acquired under the personal instructions of that individual. These views are such as necessarily lead to a decided preference for the inductive method of instruction in all the branches of education; and that method the editor has found very successful in his own experience as a teacher.—On the subject of instruction considered as an *art*, it is unnecessary to say much: public opinion seems to be almost unanimously expressed in a preference for mutual instruction—A system which appears to be more or less successful according to the pains taken to unite with it the method of oral and explanatory teaching.

Such are the editor's own opinions; but he would be sorry to forget that they are his *own*, and to inculcate them to the exclusion of all others.

In the present stage of the progress of public opinion, there is a diversity of sentiment on some of these points; and it would be unfair to foreclose a decision. In the meantime, every thing that appears with the sanction of experience stamped upon it our readers will, we hope, treasure up as certain and valuable. To collect instructive facts is the leading object of the Journal. To this course of proceeding the work is pledged by its p ospectus.

'A leading object of the Journal will be to furnish *a record of facts*, embracing whatever information the most diligent inquiry can procure, regarding the past and present state of education in the United States, and in foreign countries. An opportunity will thus be afforded for a fair comparison of the merits of various systems of instruction. The results of actual experiment will be presented; and the causes of failure, as well as of success, may thus be satisfactorily traced, and be made to suggest valuable improvements.'

'In the perusal of our pages, our readers will, we hope, keep in mind that our undertaking is one which is entirely new. The path on which we have entered is an untrodden one. No precursor has, by his success or by his failures, done any thing to indicate the course which we ought to pursue. We shall therefore have to commit ourselves, in a great measure to the guidance of circumstances. All that we can promise, at present, is this, that our attention shall be devoted chiefly to the accumulation of facts, and the diffusion of information.'

At the close of the first year of the Journal it will not perhaps be premature to review the progress of the work, and to select whatever may be fairly considered as results confirmed by unquestionable facts. The statement of these points will naturally form the basis of a sound theory of education. Facts will speak for themselves; and we shall then announce those principles by which other principles are to be brought to the test, and by which consequently our future progress will be guided.

In the meantime, the safest course seems to be to proceed with the accumulation of facts, and the toleration of opinions.

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ORGANISATION OF AN INFANT SCHOOL.

[The following paragraphs form the conclusion of our extracts from Mr. Wilderspin's volume on the Education of Infants. The articles which have been selected from that work for the pages of the Journal have, we think, placed that gentleman in a very advantageous light, not only as a teacher of uncommon skill and ingenuity, but as a practical philanthropist zealous in his labors, and embracing a wide field of benevolent exertion for the best interests of those who, in a few years, will form a large proportion of the moral and political strength of his country. The department of instruction to which he has devoted his efforts, is daily rising in public estimation.

The Report of the last annual meeting of the English Infant School Society, contains the sentiments of men the most enlightened and philanthropic of the day,—expressing the warmest approbation of that institution, and the deepest interest in its prosperity. The number of Infant Schools has increased since last year, and seems likely to be speedily enlarged so as to embrace most of the considerable towns in Great Britain.

The establishing of Infant schools in this country is successfully begun in New-York and will soon, we hope, extend to all our large cities and towns. The early cultivation of the mind can nowhere be more important than it is here, where the public well-being is so peculiarly dependent on the habits which result from education, and where the whole aspect of society is so propitious to general improvement.]

As I have had considerable practice in the art of teaching infant children, in various parts of the kingdom, I hope I may be allowed to give a few hints on the subject of organising an Infant School, without being considered ostentatious. I have generally

found, on opening a new school, that the children have no idea of acting together. In order, therefore, to gain this object, it will be found necessary to have recourse to what we call manual lessons, which consist in the children holding up their hands, all at one time; and putting them down again in the same manner. Putting the right foot out, or the left foot out, putting their hands together, or rising from their seats, all at one time; putting their hands behind them, and many other things of a similar nature. These lessons we have recourse to, in the first instance, because they are calculated to please the infants, by causing them to act together, which is one grand step towards order; after the first day or two, the children will begin to act together, and to know each other; for until this is the case, the children will be peevish and want to go home. Therefore any method that can be taken, in the first instance, to please them, should be adopted; for, while you can please them, you may be sure they will not cry. Having induced them to act together, we are then to class them according to their capacity and age, as they will begin to shew their aptitude, in obeying your several commands; and those who obey them with the greatest readiness may be classed together. I have found it difficult at all times, to keep up the attention of infants, without giving them something to do; so that when they are saying the tables in arithmetic, we always cause them to move either their hands or feet, sometimes to march round the school: the best way we have yet found out is the putting of their hands one on the other, every time they speak a sentence. If they are marching they may count one, two, three, four, five, six, &c. Having classed them, and having found that each child knows its own place in the school, you may select one of the cleverest of each class for a monitor. Some of the children will learn many of the tables sooner than the others; in this case the teacher may avail himself of the assistance of those, by causing each child to repeat what he knows, in an audible manner; the other children repeating after him, and performing the same evolutions that he does: by this means the other children will soon learn. Then the master can go on with something else, taking care to enlist as many children as he can to his assistance; for he will find that unless he does so he will injure his lungs, and render himself unfit to keep up the attention of the children, and to carry on the school with good effect. When the children have learned to repeat several of the tables, and the monitors have learned to excite their several classes, and to keep them in tolerable order, they may go on with the other parts of the plan, such as the spelling and reading, picture lessons, &c. as described elsewhere. But care must be taken that in the beginning too much be not attempted. The first week may be spent in getting them in order, without think-

ing of any thing else; and I should advise that not more than sixty children be admitted the first week, and reduced to order, in some measure, before any more are admitted; as all that come after will quickly imitate the others. I should not advise visiters to come to see an infant school for some time after it is opened, for several reasons: first, because the children must be allowed time to learn, and there will be nothing worth seeing; secondly, it takes off the children's attention, and interferes with the master; and lastly, it may be the means of visiters going away dissatisfied, and thereby injure the cause intended to be promoted.

In teaching infants to sing, I have found it the best way to sing the psalm or hymn several times in the hearing of the children, without their attempting to sing, until they have some idea of the tune; because if all the children are allowed to attempt to sing, and none of them know the tune, it prevents those who really wish to learn, from catching the sounds.

You must not expect order until your little officers are well drilled, which may be done by collecting them together after the other children are gone, and instructing them in what they are to do. Every monitor should know his work; and when you have taught him to know his work, you must expect it to be done. To get good order, you must make every monitor answerable for the conduct of his class. It is astonishing how some of the little fellows will strut about, big with the importance of office, and it will require some caution to prevent them from taking too much upon themselves; so prone are we, even in the earliest years, to attach too much importance to self. The way we teach the children hymns, is to let one child stand in the rostrum, with the book in his hand; he then reads one line, and stops until all the children in the school have repeated it, which they do altogether; he then repeats another, and so on successively, until the hymn is finished. This method is adopted with every thing that is to be committed to memory, catechisms, and spelling. If twenty words are to be committed to memory, it is done in this way; so that every child in the school has an equal chance of learning.

I have mentioned that the children should be classed: in order to facilitate this, there should be a board fastened to the wall perpendicularly, the same width as the seats, every fifteen feet, all round the school: this will separate one class from another, and be the cause of the children knowing their class the sooner. Make every child hang his hat over where he sits, in his own class, as this will save much trouble. 'Have a place for every thing, and every thing in its place:' this will bring them into habits of order. Do not do any thing for a child that he is able to do for himself; but teach him to put his own hat and coat on, and hang them up again when he

comes to school. Teach every child to help himself as soon as possible: if a child falls down, and you know that he is able to get up himself, never lift him up, if you do he will always lie until you come to lift him up. Have a slate or a piece of paper, properly ruled, hanging over every class: let every child's name that is in the class be written on it, with the name of the monitor. Teach the monitor the names as soon as you can, and then he will tell you who is absent. Have a semicircle before every lesson, and make the children keep their toes to the mark: a bit of iron hoop nailed to the floor is the best. When a monitor is asking the children questions, let him place his stool in the centre of the semi-circle and the children stand round him. Let the monitors ask what questions they please: they will soon get fond of asking questions, and their pupils will soon be equally fond of answering them. Suppose the monitor ask, What do I sit on? Where are your toes? What do you stand on? What is before you? What behind you?—at first children will have no idea of this method of exercising the thinking powers. But the teacher must encourage them in it; and they will very soon get fond of it, and be able to give an answer immediately. It is a very pleasing sight to see the infants stand round the monitors, and the monitors asking them any questions they think of. I have been much delighted at the questions put, and still more so at the answers given. Assemble all the very small children together as soon as you can, the first day or two they will want to sit with their brothers or sisters who are a little older than themselves. But the sooner you can separate them the better, as the elder children frequently plague the younger ones; and I have always found, that the youngest are the happiest by themselves.

I should advise that the conductors of an infant school, be sent up to London, to be taught the system properly; as money will be saved by it in the end, and the children will learn much quicker: as one false step in the institution will spoil the whole.

As all our ideas are admitted through the medium of the senses, they consequently must refer in the first place to external *objects*, it is for this reason, therefore, that we bring into use the following articles.

The articles are either glued or fastened on the boards, with screws or waxed thread. The boards are about sixteen inches square, and a quarter of an inch thick: wainscot is the best as it does not warp. These will go into the groove of the lesson post: there should be about twenty articles on each board, or twenty-five, just as it suits the conductors of the school. There should be the same quantity of things on each board, in order that all the children may finish at one time: this will not be the case, if there

be more objects on one board than another. I will give an account of a few of our boards; and that must suffice; or I shall exceed the limits I have prescribed to myself.

The first board contains a small piece of gold in its rough state, a piece of gold in its manufactured state, a piece of silver in both states, a piece of copper in both states, a piece of brass in both states, a piece of tin in both states, a piece of lead in both states, a piece of iron in both states, a piece of steel in both states, a piece of tinfoil, a piece of solder, a screw, a clasp nail, a clout nail, a hob nail, a spike nail, a sparable, and a tack.

These articles are all on the board; and the monitor puts his pointer to each article, and tells his little pupils their names, and encourages them to repeat the names after him. When they finish at one post they go to the next.

The next board may contain a piece of hemp, a piece of rope, a piece of string, a piece of bagging, a piece of sacking, a piece of canvas, a piece of hessian, a piece of Scotch sheeting, a piece of unbleached linen, a piece of bleached linen, a piece of diaper linen, a piece of dyed linen, a piece of flax, a piece of thread, a piece of yarn, a piece of ticking, a piece of raw silk, a piece of twisted silk, a piece of woven silk, figured, a piece of white plain silk, and a piece of dyed silk, a piece of ribbon, a piece of silk cord, a piece of silk velvet, &c.

The next may contain raw cotton, cotton yarn, sewing cotton, unbleached calico, bleached calico, dimity, jean, fustian, velveteen gause, nankeen, gingham, bed furniture, printed calico, marseilles, flannel, baise, stuff, woollen-cloth and wool, worsted, white, black, and mixed.

The next may contain milled board, paste board, Bristol card, brown paper, white paper of various sorts, white sheep skin, yellow sheep, tanned sheep, purple sheep, glazed sheep, red sheep, calf skin, cow hide, goat skin, kid, seal, pig leather, seal skin, wash leather, beaver, &c.

The next may contain about twenty-five of those wood animals which are imported into this country, and are to be had at the Foreign Toy Warehouses; some of them are carved exceedingly well, and appear very like the real animals.

The next may contain mahogany, and the various kinds of wood.

The next may contain prunings of the different fruit trees.

The next may contain the different small articles of ironmongery needles, pins, cutlery, small tools, and every other object that can be obtained small enough for the purpose.

The utility of this mode of teaching must be obvious; for if the children meet with any of those terms in a book which they are reading, they *understand it immediately;* which would not be the case

unless they had seen the *object*. The most intellectual person would not be able to call things by their *proper names*, much less describe them, unless he had been taught, or had heard some other person call them by their right names; and we generally learn more by mixing with society, than ever we could do at school. This sort of lessons persons can make themselves; and they will last for many years, and help to lay a foundation for things of more importance at some future period, when perhaps *vice* will be less encouraged than it is at present, and VIRTUE encouraged a little more. For it appears to me that whoever denies that *virtue* is owing to education, denies there is any such thing as virtue; since it proceeds from being *taught*. And he that hinders the teaching of it, does what he can to root it out of the world.

ON THE SYSTEMS OF EDUCATION ESTABLISHED IN UNIVERSITIES, AND ON THE MEANS OF IMPROVING THEM.

[From Professor Jardine's Outlines of Philosophical Education.]

As the object of education in all universities, whether of ancient or modern date, is, to prepare young men for discharging the several duties and offices of life; it is surprising that there should be so little uniformity in the means employed for the attainment of that important end. It was to be expected, no doubt, that the character of the age in which any particular seminary took its rise, as well as the main objects contemplated by those to whom it owed its foundation, should appear impressed upon the scheme of education originally pursued within its walls; but, certainly, it was not less to be expected that, in proportion as knowledge advanced, and the objects of business or ambition assumed a new form, the system of public instruction should undergo a similar and a corresponding change. Such, however, is not found to be the case. On the contrary, in some establishments of this kind, possessing great wealth and antiquity, the statutes of the founder, or the example of former generations, continue to exert a much more powerful influence on the practice of teachers, than any considerations which might be deduced from the extension of science, or even the wants and probable destination of their pupils. So great, indeed, is the difference in the means and system of instruction adopted in the several universities of Great Britain, that it might, for a moment, appear doubtful, whether the minds to be cultivated were really of the same order, and the professional qualifications to be attained had any thing in common.

To remove the prejudice which subsists against every attempt to improve established systems, we should never forget that the general plan of education was formed according to the state of knowledge, and the prevailing pursuits of the period in which it originated; and consequently that, although it might be perfectly suitable for that particular condition of society, it may prove altogether inadequate to answer the purposes of a subsequent age, possessed of greater information, and a more lofty and varied ambition. The object of Grecian education, for example, was to qualify young men for becoming good members of the commonwealth, by enabling them to acquire such arts and habits, as render their services most available in peace and in war. Among the Romans, again, during the most flourishing period of their government, the main object of public instruction was to prepare their youth for the business of the senate and of the bar; while, in the ages which preceded the revival of learning in Europe, the scheme of instruction pursued in the universities, was almost exclusively adapted to promote those particular studies and accomplishments, by which candidates for holy orders were qualified to offer their services to the church.

In the present state of European society, where the several nations have advanced to nearly the same degree of improvement, and where the objects of public instruction must be very similar, there does not seem to be any good reason why the systems actually followed, with the view of cultivating the moral and intellectual faculties of man, should present such a remarkable discrepancy as they are found to exhibit, both in principle and in detail. This observation applies with still greater force to the universities of the same country, where, as the object of instruction must be the same, the means employed for that end, should not materially differ; and yet, as has been already stated, the plan and matter of study, as well as the discipline of the several institutions, vary so much, that it is difficult to conceive that they have been guided in their proceedings, by a desire to produce the same result.

The general course of study in every university, may be considered as divided into two parts;—the under-graduate and the professional;—the former having a reference to that preparatory branch of education, which exercises and strengthens the original powers of the mind, without being directed to any particular pursuit; the latter, as the term imports, being occupied with those more limited inquiries which respect the personal views and employments of future life. This distinction is at least sufficiently obvious to form a boundary for the few remarks I have to make on the methods usually adopted in our universities, in both of these departments of public education.

The Under-graduate Course.

In all our colleges, a considerable part of the under-graduate course is devoted to the study of Greek and Latin; but, in those of Scotland, the attention is not so exclusively confined to the learned languages, as in the universities of the south. We do not, in this part of the kingdom, attach to classical learning that high, and almost exclusive degree of importance, which is ascribed to it elsewhere; thinking it of greater consequence to the students, to receive instructions in the elements of science, both mental and physical, than to acquire even the most accurate knowledge of the ancient tongues; of which all that is valuable may, it is thought, be obtained without so great a sacrifice of time and labor.

We need not, indeed, be surprised at the exaggerated notions which have been formed, in regard to the value and importance of the ancient languages. They are justly considered as the channels by which science and literature were conveyed to the nations of modern Europe; while the genius and talents displayed in the more celebrated compositions of antiquity,—in the songs of the poet and the declamations of the orator,—continue to exercise that charm on the minds of the learned, which at first arose, perhaps from novelty or gratitude. There is, besides, a hereditary veneration, among scholars, for the works which delighted the illustrious persons whom they have been taught to admire; and which laid the foundation of that immortal fame which has kindled their own ambition, and is valued by them as the highest recompense of human talent and industry.

But the practice of devoting so much time to the languages of Greece and Rome has been defended on other grounds. It is maintained that the knowledge of these tongues affords a remarkable facility for acquiring others; that they present an excellent model for the study of general grammar, and even the most recondite principles of thought and speech; and, moreover, that a good classical education qualifies a young man to use, with elegance and propriety, the vernacular language of his country.

It is impossible to deny that these, and perhaps other advantages, result from the study of ancient literature. It is only to be considered, whether all these might not be procured at less expense of time and labor, and without sacrificing other important objects, which ought likewise to make a part of the under-graduate course. The principles of general grammar, and even the particular structure of any individual language, might surely be sufficiently acquired, without that very minute attention to prosodial niceties which occupies so much time in several distinguished seminaries. I do not object to such inquiries being pursued by those whose taste and

inclination dispose them to indulge in a microscopic examination of that fine mechanism which distinguishes poetical language, and of which the beauties can only be duly appreciated by such as have been accustomed, from long study, to render the various measures and cadences familiar to their ear. I merely question the expediency of imposing upon all young men, whatever may be their talents, their likings, or their destination, the necessity of devoting so large a portion of the most valuable period of life, to a species of occupation which neither supplies a suitable exercise to the mind, nor rewards exertion by the attainment of useful knowledge.

My object in these remarks will, however, be very much mistaken, if it be supposed that I have any intention to undervalue the advantages of a classical education. But I humbly conceive, that if classical knowledge be not ample, it is, in a great measure useless; and that no time is less profitably spent, than that which is passed in acquiring a mere smattering of the ancient languages. It does not, however, follow, that the literature of antiquity should engross the exclusive attention of young men at college, from day to day, and from term to term, and thereby preclude the study of those more important branches of knowledge which lay the foundation of professional eminence, in the several departments of active life. The labors of the school boy should not be allowed to employ the more mature talent of the man; nor should the mere study of Latin and Greek words be permitted to supersede the investigation of modern science, and those sublime researches into the properties of matter and of mind, which have remunerated the labors of philosophy during the last two hundred years.

The business of the under-graduate course ought to comprehend, besides the learned languages, the elements of philosophy in all its branches,—of the science of mind, logic, ethics, geometry, and physics. I speak here only of the elements of those sciences, as alone applicable to the age and acquirements of the student, at this period of his academical life. For it is not to be imagined that any professor will undertake to communicate, in the short time allotted to such pursuits at college, a complete system of principles and deductions, in any one of the departments now specified. A teacher must not expect to carry his pupils, in the course of a few months, to the higher parts of those sciences, which it may, notwithstanding, be proper to put them in the way of studying for themselves. All that he can accomplish, in so short a period, is to open up the path which they are afterwards to pursue, to give directions for their successful progress, and to define the objects which they are to keep in view. By inducing them to employ their intellectual faculties, according to the plan of diligence proposed,

he will enable them to know their own strength; and, at the same time, to acquire the command of a powerful instrument which nature has put into their hands, for the most valuable purposes. For when the habit of investigation is once formed, and the energies of the mind are placed under the control of well-regulated attention, the student becomes his own best teacher, and the important work of education goes on of its own accord, without either pain or effort.

In these outlines, I have arranged the subjects of the first or introductory part of mental philosophy in the following order.

1st. The elements of the science of mind, or, an analysis of the powers of the mind, particularly of those by which knowledge is acquired, followed by an illustration of their several modes of operation, derived from the origin of language, and the principles of general grammar.

2d. The elements of intellectual culture, applied to each respective faculty, and to their mutual co-operation or processes of action: illustrated by the history of logic, ancient and modern.

3d. An analysis of the powers of taste; or, as they are sometimes called, of the internal or reflex senses, of novelty, beauty, sublimity, &c.

4th. An explanation of the means by which these powers or susceptibilities are cultivated; illustrated by the history of the fine arts, and the principles of composition in the department of belles lettres.

5th. The powers of communication by speech and writing; and the means of cultivating these powers, illustrated by the history of the arts of rhetoric and criticism.

These subjects may be supposed to occupy a third or a fourth part of the under-graduate course, and are very properly made to precede the more profound inquiries which belong to ethics and physics. There has, no doubt, been considerable difference of opinion among the learned, as to the nature of the studies which ought immediately to succeed the classics, in the order of academical tuition. Some recommend geometry and natural philosophy, as more suitable to the physical connections of things, where facts lay hold of the mind, before reason can deduce principles or generalise phenomena. In certain universities, accordingly, the students pass from the ancient languages to some one of the sciences which respect matter, and enter not upon the philosophy of mind, logic, ethics, &c. till toward the close of the under-graduate course.

For reasons already stated, I am satisfied that it is more advantageous to begin the philosophical course with the studies which respect the operations of mind. In all the branches of human know-

ledge, mind is either the subject or the instrument of research. In metaphysics, ethics, politics, theology, and taste, no progress can be made without a previous analysis of the intellectual and moral faculties; the anatomy of the mind must be studied, before the mental powers can be thoroughly known or successfully exercised; and no one will so profitably employ himself in the examination of the material world, as he who has been accustomed to turn his mind inward upon the course of its own operations, to mark their origin, their connection, and their results.

It is of less consequence, no doubt, to vary a little the order, in which the subjects of study are introduced, than to leave out the most important of them altogether: and it does, I humbly confess, appear to me, that, in the English universities, there is too great a portion of the under-graduate course exclusively devoted to the pursuit of classical literature.

But it is not only the matter of study which engages the attention of him who takes a survey of the present state of university education; the methods also which are adopted in the several seminaries of the kingdom, and which present not less variety than the subjects to which they are directed, claim his serious consideration, and naturally suggest some thoughts on the means of their improvement.

Every one knows that the method of teaching philosophy which is pursued in the Scottish colleges, differs considerably from that which has been long acted upon in the universities of England. In the former, a series of written lectures, composed or compiled by the professors, are annually delivered from their respective chairs; whereas, in the latter, the business of education is carried on almost entirely by means of private reading, and a species of colloquial examinations. In the prosecution of this last method, the college tutor, instead of lecturing, peruses certain authors along with his pupils, explaining particular passages as he goes along, and conversing with them on the doctrines or facts to which their attention has been directed.

Each plan, no doubt, has its peculiar advantages; but it appears to be easily practicable to combine the best parts of each, without sacrificing anything essential in either. Could this not be effected, I have no hesitation in preferring the tutorial system, limited and restricted as it must be, as infinitely more useful than a mere course of lectures, unaccompanied with examinations and exercises. The leading improvement, then, which I should venture to recommend, is the introduction into the English colleges of lectures, properly so called, to be incorporated, to a certain extent, with their present method of teaching by means of reading and conversation. This addition to their system, so far from obstruct-

ing or superseding any of their accustomed processes of intellectual culture, would, I am convinced, both render them more efficacious, and, at the same time, more agreeable to the student. Indeed, the comparatively small number of pupils, and the full command of their time and arrangements, which is placed in the hands of the college tutor, are circumstances eminently favorable to a successful application of the method of teaching I have endeavored to unfold in the foregoing pages.

The greatest obstacle which we have to encounter, in this part of the island, in following out the details of our plan, by daily examinations, and themes, arises from our very numerous classes, consisting in some instances of nearly two hundred students. In a college, therefore, where not more than thirty or forty generally attend the lectures on mental philosophy and ethics, we have the best reason to conclude that the beneficial effects of this system, would be realised to their fullest extent; that each of the young men would be examined every day on the subjects discussed in the lecture, and that essays would be regularly prescribed on the principal topics thus previously illustrated and brought home to their comprehension. The age, too, of the pupils who enter the *English* universities, presents another facility for adopting, in such schools, the lecture system, as a means of philosophical instruction. The mind of a youth of seventeen or eighteen is sufficiently mature to follow out a train of reasoning, and to perceive the connection of a discourse; whereas, in Scotland, there are always a number of students in the philosophy classes, who are not qualified, either in respect of age or of previous acquirements, for entering upon such pursuits. In every point of view, then, the method of teaching by lecture, examination, and the performance of essays, is fully more suitable to the circumstances of the English and Irish universities, than to those of Scotland; and seems calculated, of course, to produce still greater advantages in the former, than have ever yet been actually realised in the latter.

But, I am aware, it may still be proposed as a preliminary question, whether the method of teaching, in present use, does not answer all the purposes of education, as well as that which is here recommended, whether a careful perusal of select authors, and a subsequent conversation upon them, between the tutor and his pupils, are not employments as likely to improve the minds of youth, as a formal lecture pronounced in their hearing, even when it is made the ground-work of examination, and converted into materials for exercises in composition.

To decide this point, it is necessary to come to an understanding as to what are. or ought to be, the main purposes of education; and I should imagine, there can be no difficulty in admitting that

these are comprehended, *first*, in the communication of knowledge; and, *secondly*, in the cultivation of the mental powers, without a reference to any specific acquirement, in literature or science.

With regard to the communication of knowlege, there can be no doubt that, as far as regards classical learning, mathematics, and the higher parts of arithmetic, the only rational method of conveying instruction is to peruse, with the pupil, the best works in these several departments. No man ever thought of teaching a boy to understand Homer, Euclid, or La Place, by means of lectures. But we are now speaking of philosophical education, as it relates to the science of mind; of morals, and of human life; the principles of reasoning and of taste; the distinction of good and evil, the doctrines of justice, of law, and of government; and, certainly, in this wide field, where opinions have so long remained unsettled, and where no authority is permitted to give a final decision, a very different mode of instruction ought to be pursued. It is here, in short, that the lecture system ought to be introduced, as supplementary to that of individual reading.

For instance, it is only necessary to observe that no one writer contains all that the student ought to know, and that every writer comprehends more than it is either requisite or expedient should be laid before him. Our greatest authors, it is well known, wrote, not for beginners, nor with the view of giving a didactic system, but for the learned world at large, and commonly, too, with the intention either of attacking or supporting some particular hypothesis. It is impossible, therefore, to find, in any single work, the elementary statements, combined with those general views on which a philosophical education should be constructed: and thus it necessarily becomes the office of a teacher to read, to select, and to arrange, for the use of his pupils; and, from the stores of knowledge with which his professional studies must be supposed to have furnished him, to bring forward what shall appear best suited to their previous attainments, as well as to the particular object of his course. In drawing up his lectures in such circumstances, the professor will frequently see it expedient to confine himself to the outlines of subjects, which may be treated by the original author in great detail: he will give, at some length, the history of opinion on the more important questions which present themselves for discussion: he will call the attention of his pupils to the various stages in the progress of the human mind, from its first attempt at generalisation to the accomplishment of a connected system: and, in particular, he will point out the numerous sources of error, whether arising from the nature of certain inquiries, or from the imperfection of human reason, which have at various times materially retarded the advancement of science. Indeed, in many sub-

jects of study, such as divinity, law, ethics, and politics, the history of opinion constitutes the sum and substance of our knowledge. Our inquiries after the statement of a few first principles, are directed to little more than the succession of truth and error, to the varying forms which they may have assumed, and to the circumstances which have paved the way for their alternate reception. It must then be abundantly evident, that the perusal of no one work, in these departments, nor, indeed, of all the works, at any one period, would be sufficient for the purposes of instruction.

If, indeed, we shall be allowed to suppose, that the object of the tutor and his pupil is confined to the very limited attainment of knowing what were the opinions of an individual author; of Aristotle, for example, of Bacon, of Locke, or of Reid, on any particular point of philosophy, the plan of education at present pursued is unquestionably the best that could be imagined to gratify their ambition; for, they have only to turn up the chapter and section of the particular work, to examine the argument, and to note down the conclusion. But if, on the other hand, their views extend to the more exalted object of inquiring what are now received as the general opinions, on the various subjects handled so successfully by Aristotle, Bacon, Locke, and Reid, in their respective works—what were the notions which prevailed as to the object of philosophy, and the principles of human knowledge, in the long interval between the first and last of these distinguished writers—what were the discoveries or modes of thinking which led to the several changes of doctrine on these points, as we find them recorded in the history of science, and upon what particular grounds each succeeding theory was ultimately maintained or rejected, it is manifest that all the reading which the pupil, directed by his tutor, could possibly overtake, during the whole time allotted for college residence, would not enable him to accomplish this end. In short, the reading system of instruction can only be recommended when the teacher wishes to convey to his students the views of some individual philosopher; and, as such a limited undertaking is altogether inconsistent with the present state of science, it follows that, in order to realise the first mentioned purpose of academical education, namely, the communication of knowledge, the tutor ought to prepare, from his own stores of information, a course of lectures for the use of his pupils; containing at once an outline which they should endeavor to fill up, and a guide to the best source of materials.

Let us apply these general observations to the actual practice of the schools where the reading plan of teaching philosophy is adopted. The books usually read in the colleges alluded to, as an introduction to the philosophy of mind, are, I believe, Aristotle's

Analytics, or an abridgement of them in Latin, Locke on the Human Understanding, Reid's Essays, Stewart's Elements, and one or two other works written on the same subjects, and with the same views. Now, it cannot fail to strike every person acquainted with the character of the publications just specified, that, in many respects, they are quite unsuitable for the purpose of elementary instruction; particularly as they contain, even in the first parts of them, much of abstraction, generalisation, and deep reasoning, entirely beyond the comprehension of the youthful mind. I pass over the Analytics, which are now generally considered as altogether unfit to be used as an introduction to the study of Philosophy. But even the Essay of Mr. Locke is little better calculated for the commencement of a philosophical course. He begins with a very argumentative dissertation on the doctrine of innate ideas, and goes on to explain our notions of power, time, space, infinity, &c. which are some of the most abstract conceptions of the human mind. Dr. Reid, again, in his essays on the intellectual powers, after some very judicious observations on the method of studying mind, proceeds almost immediately to certain hypotheses on the nerves and brain, the phenomena of external objects, and the doctrine of ideas illustrated by the theories of Berkley, Leibnitz, and Hume. The work of Mr. Stewart, too, although entitled Elements of Philosophy, can be considered as elements to those only who have already made considerable progress in the study of mind. It requires only to run over the contents of the first part of his first volume, to be satisfied of this fact. The general and enlightened views which he gives on education, on the art of reasoning, and on the theories of perception, cannot be fully comprehended by those to whom the very term philosophy has never been explained, and who are of course completely in the dark as to the precise objects of all their inquiries.

It cannot be necessary to remark, I should hope, that these strictures have no reference whatever to the general merits of the works now mentioned, all of which have so materially extended the bounds of science, and done so much honor to their respective authors. Nothing more is meant, than that from the subjects which are discussed, and the abstract manner in which these works are composed, they are not at all suited, as school-books, to the habits and acquirements of those entering on their first course of philosophy.

But, supposing that the works of an individual philosopher, Mr. Locke, or Dr. Reid, for instance, were completely calculated for a college lesson; that the matter, the arrangement, and the mode of writing, were, in all respects, suitable to the capacity of beginners, it is clear that pupils taught in this way, would only become

acquainted with the opinions of one man, and with the state of philosophy at the particular period when he wrote. With respect, then, to the acquisition of knowledge as connected with the history of opinion on the subject of mind, of reasoning, of morals, the method of teaching pursued in the English colleges would, in my estimation, be greatly improved by introducing the practice of lecturing, in the Scottish acceptation of the word.

The communication of knowledge is not, however, on any account, the principal object which ought to be kept in view, in constructing a system of academical education. However important the knowledge received from particular authors may be, and whatever improvements may be made in the modes of communicating it by more strict and minute examinations, by collections or otherwise, it must be observed, that these exercises embrace chiefly the means, but not the ultimate end of education. They, indeed, tend to improve the powers of comprehension and memory; but they are not calculated to bestow that vigor, activity, and penetration, by which students obtain knowledge of their own; by which they generate new trains of thinking, and acquire habits of weighing and estimating the grounds of their judgements; and of combining and expressing the knowledge which has been acquired.

In all these respects, the lecturing system appears superior to that with which we are now comparing it. While listening to a discourse delivered with some degree of animation, the mind of the student is necessarily more awakened, and feels a more powerful demand made upon its energies, than when perusing a printed volume; for, in the latter case, he is quite aware that inattention can be made up for by a second reading, and that every fit of absence may be fully compensated by a little voluntary exertion, when he is more disposed to be studious. The pupil, on the contrary, who hears a lecture pronounced from the chair, and who knows he is to be examined on the subject of that lecture, its principal topics, its arrangement and illustrations, and to be required to write an exercise on some part of it, composed, too, upon the materials with which he has been thereby supplied, is naturally actuated by every motive which can stimulate industry and sustain attention. The memory is employed to store up the facts and reasonings brought forward by the lecturer; the judgement is exercised in discovering their connection and dependence; and the powers of reasoning are called into action, while he draws conclusions and generalises his inferences. Compared with these efforts of mind, the mere reading a volume in private is a dull and uninteresting employment. The intellectual powers are never sufficiently roused; they are in a state aproaching to passivity, being never stretched to their full tension nor made to put forth all their strength. The young man,

in short, is not induced by the mode of his pursuits to bring his energies into play; he is not permitted to know the extent of his talents, nor the amount of his endowments. He merely endeavors to deposit in his recollection a number of statements and a few general arguments, without having had to strain the faculty of reminiscence in gathering them together, or to task his judgement with the discovery of their relations. In a class-room, on the other hand, emulation and energy are found to result from the simple circumstance, that a number of young persons similarly situated as to age and advantages, are engaged in listening to the same things, and in receiving the same impressions. A sympathetic animation pervades the whole; the glow of zeal, and an expression of curiosity, are perceived in almost every countenance: all the faculties of the mind are exerted, and powers unused before, are awakened into life and activity.

The *viva voce* examination, too, would be attended with the best effects in an English college. The age of the pupils, their previous acquirements as classical scholars, and the convenient number in which they assemble, are, as has been already mentioned, circumstances favorable to a successful application of the method now recommended. Such examinations are obviously a much better test of ability, and afford, at the same time, much more efficient means of improvement, than a conversation, or even a series of questions, on the works of any writer, however eminent. For, in the latter case, the pupil will be apt to give his answer in the words of his author, without, perhaps, clearly understanding the terms of which he makes use; whereas, in an examination on a lecture, to which he had listened in the company of others, he is compelled to exercise at once his judgement, and his memory, and to express his meaning in language of his own composition.

We may take an example from another department of mental exertion, the office of a reporter in the House of Commons, and compare the effects produced on the faculties of memory, arrangement, and expression, by the constant exercise of these powers in the details of such a duty, with those which would arise from the mere reading a speech in the newspapers, even although he who reads were required to give some account of it, when he had finished the perusal. This is exactly a case in point. The student who listens to an academical lecture, under the impression that he is to be examined upon it, and to give the substance of it in an essay, is in the situation of the reporter in the house of commons; the student, again, who reads a book in his apartment, in the view of conversing upon it with his tutor, resembles the mere reader of a speech in a newspaper; and it will be found, upon a candid inquiry, that the effects of the two systems of education, here in-

directly compared, will be analogous to those connected with the two exercises now described. Every one knows, how astonishingly successful many reporters are, both in the houses of parliament, and in the courts of justice, in giving the principal topics, as well as the leading points of illustration, of a long speech; and, it is too obvious to require remark, that this command of the several faculties of memory, discrimination, and arrangement, arises from a species of mental exercise, in many respects similar to that which is followed out in the first class of philosophy at Glasgow, and which I am satisfied, might easily be introduced, under certain modifications, into other academical establishments.

ASSOCIATIONS OF ADULTS FOR MUTUAL EDUCATION.

[The following article is from an individual whose attention has been long and peculiarly directed to the subject on which he writes; and who has contributed extensive and efficient service to associations modelled on a plan similar to that which is now presented to our readers. The subject here introduced to public attention, is one of uncommon interest, when regarded in connection with the progress of general improvement by means of education; it is equally important in a political point of view, as intimately connected with the diffusion of intelligence, and with the elevation of character among the agricultural and mechanic classes; and to the friend of moral improvement it offers a source of peculiar gratification, as a sure preventive of those insidious inroads of vice, which are ever ready to be made on hours of leisure and relaxation.]

To the Editor,

Sir, I take the liberty to submit for your consideration, a few articles as regulations for associations for mutual instruction in the sciences, and in useful knowledge generally. You will see they are upon a broad basis; and the reason is that men of views enlightened enough upon education to see its defects and its wants, and spirit enough to act, are scattered more or less through the country; and all that is necessary for action, is some definite plan of operation by which their efforts can be united and brought to bear upon one point. It seems to me that if associations for mutual instruction in the sciences and other branches of useful knowledge, could once be started in our villages, and upon a general plan, they would increase with great rapidity, and do more for the general diffusion of knowledge, and for raising the moral and intellectual taste of our countrymen, than any other expedient which can possibly be de-

vised. And it may be questioned if there is any other way, to check the progress of that monster, intemperance, which is making such havoc with talents, morals, and every thing that raises man above the brute, but by presenting some object of sufficient interest to divert the attention of the young from places and practices which lead to dissipation and to ruin. I do not doubt but alterations in the title and articles will be advisable; but I believe most confidently, that something of the general plan may be carried into effect.

Society for Mutual Education.

The first object of this society is to procure for youths an economical and practical education, and to diffuse rational and useful information through the community generally.

The second object is to apply the sciences and the various branches of education to the domestic and useful arts, and to all the common purposes of life.

Branches of this society may be formed in any place where a number are disposed to associate for the same object, and to adopt the following or similar articles as their constitution:

The society will hold meetings, as often as they think it expedient, for the purpose of mutual instruction in the sciences, by investigating and discussing them or any other branch of useful knowledge. The several branches of Natural Philosophy, viz: Mechanics, Hydrostatics, Pneumatics, Chemistry, Mineralogy, Botany, any branch of the Mathematics, History, Political Economy, or any political intellectual, or moral subject, may be examined and discussed by the society.

Any branch of the society may, as often as they think it expedient, procure regular courses of instruction by lectures or otherwise, in any subject of useful knowledge.

The society, as they find it convenient, shall procure books, apparatus for illustrating the sciences, a cabinet of minerals, and other articles of natural or artificial production.

The society may aid in establishing and patronising an institution or institutions, for giving to youths a thorough education, intellectual, moral and physical, and in the application of the sciences to agriculture and the other useful arts, and for qualifying teachers. The aid to be given by furnishing means for the pupils by agricultural or mechanical operations, to defray or lessen the expenses of their education.

Any person may be a member of the society, by paying to the Treasurer, annually, one dollar. And ten dollars paid at any one time, will constitute a person a member for life.

The money paid to the society for membership or otherwise, shall be appropriated to the purchase of books, apparatus, a cab-

inet, aiding an institution for practical education or for some other object for the benefit of the society.

The officers of each branch of the society shall be a President, Vice President, Treasurer, Recording and Corresponding Secretaries; five Curators, and three Delegates to meet delegates from other branches of the society in the same county.

The President, Vice President, Treasurer, and Recording Secretary, shall perform the duties usually implied in those offices. The corresponding secretaries shall make communications to each other for the benefit of the society, as discoveries, improvements, or other circumstances shall require.

The curators shall have charge of the library, apparatus, cabinet, and all other property of the society, not appertaining to the treasury.

The delegates of the several branches of the society in any one county, shall meet semi-annually, at such place as they shall choose, for the purpose of consulting upon meaures for promoting the designs of the society, particularly for encouraging an institution for giving an economical and practical education, and for qualifying teachers.

The delegates from the several branches of the society in any county, shall be called the board of delegates from the society for Mutual Education in that county.

The board of delegates in each county shall appoint such officers as shall be necessary for their organisation or for doing any business coming within their province.

Each board of delegates shall appoint a representative, to meet representatives from other boards who shall be styled the Board of Mutual Education for a given State; and it might be advantageous to have also a General Board embracing the United States.

It shall be the duty of the General or State Boards to meet annually to appoint a president and other officers, to devise and recommend such a system of Education as they shall think most eligible, also to recommend such books as they shall think best fitted to answer the purposes for which they are designed, and to adopt and recommend such measures, generally, as are most likely to secure to the rising generation the best intellectual, moral, and physical, education, and to diffuse the greatest quantity of useful information among the various classes of the community.

Any branch of the society will have power to adopt such by-laws and regulations, as will be necessary for the management and use of the library, apparatus, cabinet, &c. and for carrying into effect any designs not inconsistent with the general object of the society.

Several institutions essentially the same as here proposed, have already been formed in our country, and some of them are highly useful and respectable: that others may and will be formed, there is

no doubt. The object of the above articles is to forward the formation of them upon a general plan, and to form a connecting link between them which will enable them to unite their efforts, and may possibly lead them to vie with each other in prosecuting their general object, which is certainly second to no one that ever enlisted the talents of the Philosopher or of the Statesman, or the feelings of the Philanthropist.

POLITICAL IMPORTANCE OF EDUCATION.

[The following paragraphs are extracted from Mr. Burnside's Address delivered at Worcester, on the anniversary of a new organisation of the schools in that town, March 25th, 1826.

The subject of education furnishes to the philanthrophist an instructive as well as a pleasant theme of contemplation, in every light in which it is considered. Its political value is not, in this country at least, apt to be overlooked. Still, it cannot be too often brought to view; and the probability that legislative measures for the farther improvement of education, are probably to be soon adopted on a higher scale than heretofore, gives an additional interest to the subject of the able address from which this article is taken.]

From the different estimates, which have been made on the subject, we may assume eight hundred millions as the probable population of the globe we inhabit. Of these, christianity can claim but little more than one fifth, as nominally her own. All the residue, except about two millions of Jews, amounting to more than 600 millions, are Mahometans and Pagans. To these may be added, at least 100 millions of nominal christians, embracing nine-tenths of the Greek and catholic churches; and we find there are 700 out of 800 millions of human beings, no one of whom can compare in knowledge with the humblest child who has been instructed in the free schools of Massachusetts; and I shudder to add, that most of these are as morally worthless, as they are stupidly ignorant. This is indeed a dark picture, though I believe a just one, of the present state of mankind. The thought is humiliating, that this immense portion of the human family is thus lost to all that is valuable and dignified in the character of rational beings. In presenting this view, however, of the degradation of man, I do not forget what has been effected, in every age, to enlarge his mind and meliorate his condition; nor do I overlook the present advanced state of science and the useful arts. Were it

our purpose to trace the progress of human knowledge, we should find cause for admiration at the successful exertion of the intellectual powers of man, when directed to their legitimate objects. But it is more appropriate to this anniversary, to inquire into the *causes* which have so effectually prevented the diffusion of knowledge among our fellow men; for with whatever splendor the rays of science have shone upon *a part* of our world, they have hardly *lessened* the thick darkness which has ever brooded over the greatest portion of it. The *principal* cause may be found, if I mistake not, in the forms of civil government which have prevailed among the nations. With few exceptions, these have been arbitrary, both in ancient and modern times.

Now it is the manifest policy of every such government to *prevent* a general spread of knowledge among their subjects; to take prompt and efficient measures to *suppress* every indication of a spirit of inquiry into the rights of man, and the pretensions of princes to govern without responsibility. It requires little sagacity to foresee that such inquiries would never result favorably to the claims of ambition; but must always terminate, as they ever have done, in the overthrow of unlimited authority, and the establishment, upon its ruins, of a different political system, directly recognising the *people* as the only legitimate source of power, and entitled to the right of self government. Without resorting for illustrations to nations of antiquity, I appeal directly to the history of modern Europe to show how steadily, how artfully, and how successfully, this fatal policy has been pursued by the rulers of that continent. After much research, I have found but one solitary instance, in which provision has been made by *law* for the indiscriminate instruction of children in the elements of useful knowledge. In 1646, the Parliament of Scotland passed an act, requiring free schools to be maintained in all the Parishes of that kingdom for the elementary instruction of the poor.* Scarce had the system contemplated by this act gone into operation when the statute was repealed, upon the restoration of Charles II. together with all other laws passed during the Commonwealth, as not having received the royal assent. It did not suit the views of the politic Charles or the headstrong James II. to furnish facilities for the education of the Scottish peasantry. No attempt, therefore, was made during those

* Laws of an earlier date, though of a more limited tendency, might perhaps have been found. Among the ancient acts of the Scottish Parliament are some designed to enforce the universal diffusion of education, as far at least as regarded ability to read the Scriptures. Heavy penalties were threatened against every master, and every head of a house, who should be guilty of neglecting the instruction of his apprentices, domestics, or children. Similar enactments, our readers no doubt remember, were among the earliest legislative measures of the founders of the New-England colonies.

two reigns to revive the statute of 1646, because no hope could be entertained that a bill for that purpose would not be indignantly negatived in the exercise of the royal prerogative. But after the revolution, in 1696, it was re-enacted, and is probably still in force. The Parliament of Ireland once made a similar law; but they immediately diverted the fund designed for the object, and abandoned the enterprise. In no other country except our own, are the means of education furnished by law to the common people. In the Protestant Cantons of Switzerland, and in some of the districts of England, and in a few of the states of Prussia, the peasantry have access to schools similar to those maintained in Scotland; but they owe their existence to individual munificence, or to the patronage of religious associations. We look in vain to the records of other countries for evidence that the interests of education have ever been embraced within the scope of their policy; that the instruction of the poor has ever been the object of *one single act of legislation;* or that the smallest portion of public revenue has ever been pledged to enlighten the minds and form the morals of the rising generation.

It is vain ever to hope for an enlightened populace, under governments, whose very existence depends on their ignorance. But we may confidently trust in the benevolence of God, that the depressed and degraded millions of Europe will, at last, be emancipated. Liberal principles are making slow, but sure progress, and in opposition to the combined operation of the causes I have mentioned, will ultimately triumph in a radical change of the political aspect of Europe. Far different was the policy, and more exalted were the views of the venerable fathers of New-England. They were too wise, and too patriotic to leave schools dependent on private liberality. They laid deep the foundations of education in the principles of their constitution of government. They made it an early object of legislation to *enjoin* upon towns the duty of supporting masters to instruct the young in elementary knowledge, and gospel ministers to guide both *old* and *young* in the paths of moral rectitude. They not only *permitted* but they *invited* and *urged* the poor to send their children for instruction, to the schools maintained for them at the expense of the public. Their system of education has come down to us, through a period of 200 years, as the most valued and precious of the institutions of our country; and there is scarcely a child, that hears me, who does not know, that its daily lessons are taught by legislative direction.

Before this audience, it is not necessary to dwell *long*, upon the advantages, which flow from it. Most of our legislators, our judges and governors have commenced their preparation for the high stations they have filled in society, by drinking at these sim-

ple SPRINGS of knowledge. We see the magic influence of our schools in the habits of industry, sobriety and order, which prevail in the community; in the cheerful obedience, so generally yielded to the laws, and in the acts of charity and benevolence, which are, every day, multiplied around us. Rarely have we seen a native of Massachusetts paying the forfeit of his life, to the violated laws of the State. Still more rarely have we found, of the unhappy number of capital sufferers, one, whose early years have been passed in the seminaries of our villages.

In our sister States, experience has been equally decisive of the saving influence of these primary institutions. The executive of New-York, states in an official communication to the legislature, that of ten thousand children, who had been educated in the free-schools of the metropolis, *not one* had ever been convicted of an infamous crime. And the eloquent editor of the works of the Scottish bard, to whom I am indebted for whatever information I have given of his country, speaks of the effects of schools upon the peasantry, in language so forcible and pertinent, that I cannot forbear repeating it on the present occasion. "At the present day, there is perhaps no country of Europe, in which, in proportion to its population, so small a number of crimes fall under the chastisement of the criminal law, as Scotland. We have the best authority for asserting that, on an average of thirty years preceding the year 1797, the executions in that division of the island did not amount to six annually; and one quarter sessions for the town of Manchester only, has sent, (according to Mr. Hume,) more felons to the plantations, than all the judges of Scotland usually do, in the course of a year. It might appear invidious, (he continues,) to attempt a calculation of the many thousand individuals in Manchester and its vicinity, who can neither read nor write. A majority of those, who suffer the punishment of death for their crimes in every part of England, are, it is believed, in this miserable state of ignorance." This, we should recollect, is an account of the state of morals among the Scotch peasantry, *one century* after their free schools had gone into operation. The contrast of this representation may be read in the political works of Fletcher of Salton, who describes the conditon of the Scots, *before* the establishment of their schools; and he exhibits a state of society, depraved and wretched beyond conception.

SUGGESTIONS TO PARENTS.

Thoughts on the influence of Education in forming the Moral and Religious Character.

To the Editor,

Sir, if it be admitted that our state in the life to come will be influenced in any degree by the characters which we form in the present world, the principal object of all our efforts for improving the common systems of Education, must be to meliorate the *moral* condition of the human family; and, by connecting knowledge with duty, to give to all instruction a direct tendency to establish in the mind those principles and those affections, which will determine our final destiny. The belief that human science is incompatible with the religion of the Bible has nearly passed away from this country, and is rapidly leaving the world; but while abandoning this belief, many persons seem disposed to fall into the opposite extreme, and even to assume it as a conceded fact, that secular knowledge has no connection with religion.

But, without any controversy, may we not assume it as an obvious truth that all knowledge and all duty is *religious* just in proportion to its influence, either direct or indirect, in forming our moral characters. Truths and duties are of different orders; but there can be no truth which is important to be known by an immortal being, that may not have some influence in forming his religious character. By expanding his mind, it enlages his sphere of duty; by ennobling his capacities, it enhances his moral obligations. *To whom much is given, of him shall much be required.*

The rank to which your Journal has already attained, indicates that it is destined to exert an extensive and powerful influence on the characters of our children; and you will be disposed, sir, to consider very seriously the extent of your responsibility. If you should decide that the subject which I have introduced is fairly entitled to a place in your work, I shall occasionally offer a short letter for your consideration. It is not, however, desirable that this subject should employ merely the talents of an humble individual. The field is wide; it is little cultivated; and there is room for the labors of all; for those who can clear the ground of its natural growth—its thorns, and brambles, and ivy, and nightshade; for those who can sow good seed; for those who can watch lest the enemy sow tares; and for those who can prune and nourish the growing plant, that it may spring up, and bear fruit unto life eternal.

If any singularity of sentiment should be discoverable in these letters, it may not be improper to ask whether something new on

this subject is not desirable. We should pass but a poor compliment to our holy religion by supposing that its precepts had been duly applied to the subject of education. For more than eighteen centuries it has been taught as the way of life; but the annals of this period are crowded with the records of the blackest crimes. Every imaginable remedy for the general corruption of human nature has been tried, except that of instilling into the infant mind the genuine principles of love towards God, and charity towards its neighbor, and training it up in the way it should go. This method has received many partial experiments on a very limited scale; and wherever it has been tried it has been attended with the most salutary and encouraging results. But the experiment of educating a community *as Christians*, has not been tried in Europe nor in America. If we wish to form any tolerable estimate of the effects of such a mode of education, we are compelled to look to Pitcairn's Island; or to go out of Christendom, and mark the influence of principles and modes of instruction, which deserve to be called Christian, among the Leeo-Keeos, the Japanese, or possibly among some sequestered tribe in central Africa, which heaven may have preserved from the contamination of *paganised* christianity.

In these remarks there is no intention of censuring any system or creed among Christians: the meaning is simply, to deny that any sect of Christians has educated its children *practically* in the real spirit and temper of the gospel, and to infer that some new and more thorough method of combining religious and secular knowledge is necessary, in order that, by educating our children, we may prepare them to be good and happy.

You will, sir, do me the justice to remark that I seek not to shackle the minds of children by the austere maxims of any system of faith; but to show by what means their minds and their conduct may be regulated by the pure maxims of religious morals. You will also observe, that my object is to analyse the minds of children,—to show the relations which they sustain in respect to their parents, and teachers, and other associates,—and to illustrate those rules for their discipline and instruction, which shall be found suited to their condition. I shall adopt this plan, instead of confining myself to the encouragement of any particular mode of instruction, because I believe this branch of your grand topic receives too little attention. Those who have adopted an easy and convenient method of imparting knowledge, would be still more useful, if their knowledge were more philosophical. Comparatively few instructers have possessed the means of acquiring from observation, a very extensive knowledge of human nature. Any information which would aid them in a just estimate of the capacities and propensities of the infant mind; the natural order

of its developement; the best method of exciting and preserving a disposition to reduce knowledge to practice; and the true means of engaging the whole heart in what duty requires;—any such information would be highly important to all those who are entrusted with the care and instruction of children. Even a moderate share of such knowledge might greatly increase in the instructer a sense of his solemn responsibility, and make him more careful to sow good seed.

If it be necessary, in introducing this subject to your readers, to add any remarks as to its importance, they may be reminded that the whole life of man is not too long, when well improved, to make him good. When the early part of it has been misimproved, the remainder is attended with embarrassments, perplexities, and dangers; and the result, if all reflection be not lost, is appalling. The time to correct our natural evil propensities, and to establish virtuous habits, is in infancy and childhood. Many external evils may be removed merely by convincing men that they are impolitic; but every reformation which requires a change of the internal character,—a change of the hearts of men, should commence at the cradle. It is only in infancy and childhood, that the mind will make no resistance to what is good and true. In later years, man's own will, and the imaginations of his own heart, rise in opposition. These must be first consulted and first conciliated. And the labor of this method is hard, and its effects uncertain. When the character is formed after a false and corrupt model, nothing can be conceived more difficult than to effect a radical change. Good principles, if received after the character is established, rarely work a general reformation. They may gain an ascendancy in the centre of the soul, and, under more propitious circumstances than the present world affords, reduce the whole man to an orderly and consistent character. This is nearly all that can be expected. We look in vain for a consistent man in this world. We readily abandon some speculative principles, and some habits which have little connexion with our ruling love. It is easy to produce a striking external transformation, without suppressing pride, or eradicating self-love. But to exchange self-love and love of the world, for the love of God and our neighbor, and to submit the whole soul to these essential principles and those which flow from them, is a vast work. Begin it as early as we will,—and still, even with the aid of Heaven, it is slowly wrought, and late, if ever, completed. Why, then do we encourage our children to neglect it until their characters are fixed like the skin of the Ethiopian and the spot of the leopard?

Man's selfishness always prompts him to examine cautiously the conditions on which he is to exchange opinions and principles

which he has long possessed and acknowledged, for those which are new; and it would be well, if it did not also blind him as to their comparative value. But, by long possession and use, they become a part of himself, and he loves himself in them. They are his possessions; they serve and have long served his purposes: they have given him the reputation which he enjoys in his own view, and the view of others. How, then, can he attach to them merely their relative value? '*How hardly shall they that have riches enter into the kingdom of God.*' '*Whosoever shall not receive the kingdom of God as a little child, he shall not enter therein.*'

HISTORICAL SKETCH OF THE FREE SCHOOLS OF MASSACHUSETTS.

[The following paragraphs are extracted from 'Letters to the Hon. William Prescott, LL. D. on the Free Schools of New-England, with Remarks upon the Principles of Instruction. By James G. Carter.' This gentleman is one of the few individuals who in this country have vigorously and effectively devoted their exertions not merely to the business of instruction, but to the extensive improvement of education. That Mr. Carter has been highly successful in his efforts, it will be unnecessary to inform those of our readers who have observed the favorable influence of his labors as editor of the United States Literary Gazette.

In the pages of that work the inductive method of teaching has been ably inculcated; and, with whatever skepticism it may be regarded by some theorists, the practical results of it, as far as it has been hitherto adopted, have been decidedly beneficial. To designate a single instance: Colburn's works on arithmetic, which have been much aided by the recommendations of the Gazette, have effected, in schools of every description, a more rapid and thorough reformation than any that has yet been recorded in the history of instruction.

The pamphlet from which our present extracts are made, contains, beside its historical matter, many valuable suggestions for improvement in the methods of teaching in common schools. The hints contained in this part of the work, would be very serviceable in seminaries of every kind.]

Under the Colony charter of Massachusetts Bay, among the first legislative acts, are recorded the following characteristic preamble and law:

'For as much as the good education of children is of singular behoof and benefit to any commonwealth, and whereas many parents and masters are too indulgent and negligent in that kind;

'It is ordered, that the selectmen of every town in the several precincts and quarters where they dwell, shall have a vigilant eye over their brethren and neighbors, to see;

'First, that none of them shall suffer so much barbarism in any of their families, as not to endeavor to teach, by themselves or others, their children and apprentices, so much learning, as may enable them perfectly to read the English tongue, and knowledge of the capital laws:

'Also, that all masters of families do once a week (at the least) *catechise* their children and servants in the grounds of religion; and if any be unable to do so much, that then, at the least, they procure such children and apprentices to learn some short orthodox catechism without book, that they may be able to answer unto the questions, that shall be propounded to them out of such catechism, by their parents or masters, or any of the selectmen, when they shall call them to a trial of what they have learned in that kind.'*

Although laws like these would not, in themselves, lead us to form any very sanguine expectations of great progress in literature, or very astonishing discoveries in science; yet, from the deep solicitude they manifest upon the subject, we are led to anticipate something better, as soon as the resources of the Colony are adequate to a more liberal provision. This anticipation is realised by the foundation of Harvard College in 1636. After the confederation of Colonies, Massachusetts Bay, Plymouth, Connecticut, and New-Haven, in 1643, this 'school of the prophets,' as it was *then* called, became an object of deep interest, and received their united and undiverted patronage.

How general was the interest taken in this institution, and how great exertions they were willing to make for its encouragement, will appear from the following petition of the 'President and Fellows,' and the reply they received from the Commissioners.

'Seeing from the first evil contrivall of the collidge building, there now ensues yearely decayes of the rooff, walls, and foundations, which the study rents will not carry forth to repaire; therefore, we present to your wisdome to propounde some way to carry an end to this worke.' A reply was returned; 'The Commissioners will propounde to and improve their several interests in the Collonies, that by *pecks*, *half bushells*, and *bushells* of wheat, accord-

* Colony Laws, Chap. 22, Sec. 1.

ing as men are free and able, the Collidge may have some considerable yearly healp towards their occasions, and herein, if the Massachusetts please to give a leading example, the rest may probably the more reddyly follow.'*

Notwithstanding the solicitude of the puritans, that the rising generation should be educated sound in the faith, as well as correct in practice, it seems, the perversity of human nature did sometimes, even in those good days, prevail; and it was difficult to find *proper* objects of the public favor. The government of the College ask direction of the General Court, as to the distribution of their bounty in the following words.

'Whither we shall have respect, in the disposall of the said contributions, to all the schollars in generall, (as by maintenance of common officers and the like,) or especially, to such as are poore, pious, and learned; the three *usual* qualifications looked at in such cases.'† The Court reply; 'The supplies granted by the severall Collonies were first intended for the support and encouragement of poore, pious, and learned youthes, and it is desired these ends may cheefly be attended in the disposall thereof; onely if *no such youthes* be present, it may be imployed for the common advantage of the Collidge.'‡

These evidences of early attention to Harvard College are cited, not because it is that, in which I am now chiefly interested, but to show the interest our ancestors felt on the subject of education, and the sacrifices they were willing to make for the general diffusion of knowledge. Although the College was a favorite object of patronage, the puritans did not forget the '*primary schools*.'§ They bestowed upon them an attention, which evinced how well they judged, that it is *in them* the character of the mass of the people is formed. So far as education is concerned, the highest seminaries may furnish the ornament, but the primary schools must afford the strength and stability of republican institutions. As early as 1647, less than twenty years from the date of their first charter, the colony of Massachusetts Bay made provision by law, for the support of schools at the public expense, for instruction in reading and writing, in every town containing fifty families; and for the support of a grammar school, the instructer of which should be competent to prepare young men for the University, in every town

* Haz. Hist. Coll. vol. ii. p. 107.

† Hist. Coll. vol. ii. p. 85.

‡ Hist. Coll. vol. ii. pp. 86, 87.

§ This phrase is used to denote the elementary or lowest class of schools, which are supported by the districts of each town.

containing one hundred families. For this exertion, which, considering the state of the Colonies at this period of their history, must have been no inconsiderable one, they assign the following truly catholic and pious reason:

'It being one chief project of Satan to keep men from the knowledge of the scripture, as in former times keeping them in unknown tongues, so in these latter times, by persuading from the use of tongues, that so at least the true sense and meaning of the original might be clouded and corrupted with false glosses of deceivers; to the end that learning may not be buried in the graves of our forefathers in church and commonwealth, the Lord assisting our endeavors:—

'Sec. 1. It is therefore ordered by this court and the authority thereof; that every township within this jurisdiction, after the Lord hath increased them to the number of fifty householders, shall then forthwith appoint one within their towns to teach all such children as shall resort to him, to write and read, whose wages shall be paid either by the parents or masters of such children, or by the inhabitants in general, by way of supply, as the major part of those that order the prudentials of the town, shall appoint: provided that those who send their children be not oppressed by paying much more than they can have them taught for in other towns.

'Sec. 11. And it is further ordered, that where any town shall increase to the number of one hundred families or householders, they shall set up a grammar school, the master thereof being able to instruct youth, so far as they may be fitted for the University; and if any town neglect the performance hereof above one year, then every such town shall pay five pounds per annum to the next such school, till they shall perform this order.'*

To insure the object of the law, the penalty was afterwards increased to ten, and finally to twenty pounds. And lest the morals characters of the young should suffer, by their being educated by improper instructers, this cautious and saving admonition is subjoined; 'this court doth commend it to the serious consideration and special care of our overseers of the college, and the selectmen in the several towns, not to admit or suffer any such to be continued in the office or place of teaching, educating, or instructing youth or children in the college or schools, that have manifested themselves unsound in the faith, or scandalous in their lives, and have not given satisfaction according to the rules of Christ.'

As the population increased in some towns, so as to render the former provisions inadequate to their purpose, another law provided, that 'every town consisting of more than five hundred families

* Colony Laws, chap. 73.

or householders, shall set up and maintain *two* grammar schools, and *two* writing schools, the masters whereof shall be fit and able to instruct youth as the law directs.' These were the laws for the support of free schools, which obtained under the Colony Charter of Massachusetts Bay, and as they were executed, they secured to all, the means of some education.

The colony of Plymouth, though not approaching that of Massachusetts in population and resources, was hardly inferior in the enlightened views entertained upon the subject of free schools. In 1667, their legislature hold the following language; 'For as much as the maintenance of good literature doth much tend to the advancement of the weal and flourishing state of societies and republics, this court doth therefore order, that in whatever township in this government, consisting of fifty families or upwards, any meet man shall be obtained to teach a grammar school, such township shall allow at least twelve pounds, to be raised by rate on all the inhabitants.' As the colony of Connecticut was principally settled by emigration from the older colony of Massachusetts, it early adopted the spirit of its laws, upon all subjects. The causes, which influenced so strongly all the early institutions of New England, operated as powerfully in Connecticut, as in any of the colonies. They *loved free institutions*, and were impatient of control from any source foreign to themselves. And their *zeal* to propagate and perpetuate a blind and bigotted *faith* was proverbial. But they did all for conscience' sake. Whatever were the causes which led the puritans of New England to the adoption of their liberal and enlightened policy in regard to free schools, the effects were, certainly, most happy upon the condition of the people. And with the advantages of their experience, and of living in a more enlightened age, though we might wish to change some shades in their motives, we could hardly hope, on the whole, to make more noble exertions for the promotion of the same object. Their pious care of the morals of the young; their deep and devoted interest in the general dissemination of knowledge; and the sacrifices they endured to afford encouragement and patronage to those nurseries of piety and knowledge, *the free schools*, are without parallel in the history of this or any other country.

REVIEWS.

Outlines of Philosophical Education, illustrated by the method of teaching the Logic Class in the University of Glasgow; together with Observations on the expediency of extending the Practical System to other Academical Establishments, and on the propriety of making certain additions to the Course of Philosophical Education in Universities. By George Jardine, A. M., F. R. S. E., Professor of Logic and Rhetoric in that University. Second edition, enlarged. Glasgow, 1825. 12mo. pp. 542.

(Concluded from p. 553.)

The following account of the progress of improvement, (resumed from our last number,) in the university of Glasgow, will enable our readers to appreciate more justly the labors of Professor Jardine, and the important services which he rendered to the business of education.

'During the seventeenth century, various circumstances concurred to prove, both that the Aristotelian philosophy was itself declining in reputation, and also that the scholastic method of teaching was felt to be no longer suitable to the spirit of the times. About 1646 or 1647, complaints upon this head had reached the General Assembly of the Church of Scotland; upon which, this body of divines conceiving themselves to be invested with the right of superintending universities, as well as inferior schools, appointed commissioners to examine into the practical details of their several modes of teaching, with powers to remedy abuses of every kind. In one of the Acts, accordingly, of these commissioners, it is declared, "that the *dyting* (dictating) of long notes has, in time past, proved not only a hinderance to the necessary studies, but also to the knowledge of the text itself, and to the examination of such things as are taught; it is therefore sincerely recommended by the commissioners to the dean and faculty of arts, that the Regents (the professors who had the charge of educating the youth) spend not so much time in *dyting* of their notes; that no new lesson be taught till the former be examined; that every student have the text of Aristotle in Greek; and that the Regent first analyse the text, *viva voce*, and thereafter give the sum thereof in writing." We may also mention, in passing, that it was likewise proposed to the commissioners, by their reverend constituents, to introduce a uniform system of instruction into all the Scots universities; but this object, after much conference and discussion on the part of the commissioners, and an actual comparison of the several plans of teaching then in use, was afterwards abandoned, as being impracticable, or at least inexpedient, in the existing circumstances of the times.

A Royal Visitation, which took place in 1727, was the means of introducing, into the college of Glasgow, the first radical reform in the method of teaching philosophy. Prior to this date, each professor conducted his pupils through the whole philosophical course; giving lectures in three successive years, on logic, ethics, and physics. One of the principal changes recommended by the royal visiters on this occasion, consisted in restricting the professors of philosophy to a particular department. The former method was, no doubt, attended with some considerable advantages altogether peculiar to it; and accordingly it still remains questionable with many persons, fully competent to form a judgement on such matters, whether the innovation now stated, was in every point of view, a decided improvement. When the primary object of a professor is not so much to extend the bounds of science, by original speculations of his own, as to communicate to youth elementary instruction, drawn from the works of others, he may not find much difficulty in making himself sufficiently master of all that is necessary to be taught, in each department; whilst, from an intercourse with his students, during three sessions of college, he has such an opportunity of becoming acquainted with their several talents and dispositions, as enables him to adapt, with every prospect of success, his mode of instruction to their respective capacities. If, in addition to this, we could have any ground for assurance, that the duties of a professor would always be discharged by able men, and zealous teachers, there could be no hesitation in pronouncing the ancient system decidedly superior to the modern; but, when, on the contrary, it is morally certain that professorial chairs will not always be filled by individuals so highly qualified, and as men of ordinary talents may, nevertheless, by confining their attention to one particular field of study, not only acquire some eminence, but become very successful instructers, it is extremely probable, all things considered, that each branch of knowledge will be better taught by being intrusted to a separate professor. Besides, there is possibly some improvement to be derived from the opportunity, thus furnished to a young man, of observing and comparing different modes of communicating instruction; and, at all events, it is an advantage not entirely to be overlooked, that students should not during their whole academical course be confined to one teacher, but should have it in their power to attend the lectures of any distinguished professor, who may happen at the time to adorn our seat of learning.'

It is one of the characteristic arrangements of the Scottish universities, that no student is compelled to attend the whole round of lectures which constitutes the college course. He may select what branches he pleases, and omit others, making the selection with reference to his future avocation in life; and, at the same time, any individual in private life, who is zealous for his own improvement, may attend as many of the lectures as he pleases. It is not at all unusual to find a merchant or even a mechanic here

and there among the students at lecture. This circumstance is highly favorable to the improvement of the community.

The course which many judicious parents adopt with regard to the college in Glasgow, is one which might be useful every where. The youth are sent to one class or to another, with direct reference to their preparation for their pursuits in life; and they omit whatever would be useless to them; or if in any private seminary a more practical course of instruction is given in a particular branch, the student resorts to it, for that department, and returns afterwards to college to attend the course of lectures. So that the university is treated as in fact but one of the many seminaries of instruction, to which the city affords access. Graduating is by no means held essential to any of the pursuits of future life,—except, perhaps, theology; and no student feels bound to complete the college course, lest otherwise he should not obtain a degree.—Degrees are comparatively seldom applied for; a good education, no matter when or where obtained—being the object aimed at by parents, as the most beneficial to their sons. At the same time a premature entrance on professional life is prevented by a knowledge of the high qualifications which every candidate must expect to find in his competitors; and which are therefore indispensable to him.

'The improvements in this university, arising from the regulations introduced by the royal visitation, were greatly promoted by the appointment, which took place shortly afterwards, of more than one professor of singular zeal and ability. The first of these was Dr. Francis Hutcheson. This celebrated philosopher, whose mind was stored with the rarest gifts of learning, illustrated, with a copious and splendid eloquence, the amiable system of morality which is still associated with his name; producing thus the happiest effects, not only on his own students, but also on his colleagues, and infusing, at once, a more liberal spirit, and a greater degree of industry, into all the departments of teaching. Great obstacles, however, still remained. The professor of the first philosophy class, according to the practice of the times, continued to deliver his lectures in the Latin language; a method of instruction, which, although it must long have proved a great impediment to the ready communication of knowledge, on the part of the teacher, and to the reception of it on the part of the pupil, was not discontinued in this college till upon the following occasion.

In the year 1750, Adam Smith was appointed professor of logic;—and, being rather unexpectedly called to discharge the duties of his office, he found it necessary to read to his pupils, in the English language, a course of lectures on rhetoric and belles lettres, which he had formerly delivered in Edinburgh. It was only during one session, however, that he gave these lectures; for at the end of it, he was elected professor of moral philosophy; and it was on the occasion of

this vacancy in the logic chair, that Edmund Burke, whose genius led him afterwards to shine in a more exalted sphere, was thought of, by some of the electors, as a proper person to fill it. He did not, however, actually come forward as a candidate; and the gentleman who was appointed to succeed Dr. Smith, without introducing any change, as to the subjects formerly taught in the logic class, followed the example of his illustrious predecessor, in giving his prelections in English.

Nothing, certainly, can more retard the progress of science, and particularly of elegant literature, than the practice of teaching in a foreign language. Imperious convictions of utility have now altogether removed that obstacle to improvement; yet, such is the predilection for established usages, that several years after the period now alluded to, when the professor of law in this university began to deliver his lectures in the English language, the faculty of advocates complained of the innovation, and requested that the former practice of prelecting in Latin might be resumed. Now, however, a total change of opinion on this subject has taken place; and among no class of men was it more decidedly manifested than in the learned body here alluded to; a great number of whom, almost immediately afterwards, repaired to Glasgow to pursue the study of law under the late celebrated Professor Millar, who delivered all his prelections in English.

This change, which was soon extended to all the other classes, was obviously unfavorable to the practice of scholastic disputation; and, accordingly, from the time that the practice of lecturing in English was generally introduced, the public disputations gradually declined. All the terms and expressions, employed in these intellectual combats, were so closely associated with the use of the Latin language, that an attempt to dispute in our vernacular tongue, according to the forms of the Aristotelian logic, would not only have appeared extremely awkward, but what is worse, would have infallibly exposed the inanity of the discussion. The last instance of a degree in arts obtained by defending a Thesis in the public hall of this university, occurred in the year 1762; the only vestiges of the practice being now confined to the mode of conferring medical degrees, and, even in this case, it is in the option of the candidate whether he shall defend a Thesis publicly or not. A strict examination in private, by a committee of professors, followed up by a public examination before the *Senatus Academicus*, is justly esteemed a much more effectual method of ascertaining the qualifications of candidates, than any trial of skill in the use of syllogistic mood and figure.

From the above period till the year 1774, when I had the honor of being elected professor of logic, the subjects prescribed by the royal commissioners continued to be taught in that department in the following order.

The class opened on the 10th of October, (the annual commencement of the session or term,) with reading and commenting on some portions of the Memorabilia of Socrates; which exercise continued two

or three weeks, until the greater part of the students were assembled. On the first of November, the proper business of the course began, with an explanation of Aristotle's logic. This subject occupied the attention of the class till about the beginning of February, when the professor entered upon *metaphysics*. Commencing with that part of the inquiry which treats of the human mind, he afterwards, about the middle of April, proceeded to *ontology*, or that branch of metaphysical science which comprehends the various doctrines on the general attributes of being, existence, essence, unity, bonity, truth, relations, modes of possibility, impossibility, necessity, contingency, and other similar abstract conceptions of pure intellect; which topics, together with the usual questions connected with them, relative to the immateriality and immortality of mind, the liberty or necessity of human action, and other subordinate points, constituted the whole course of study. The lectures were delivered at an early hour in the morning; and, in the forenoon, the students were again assembled, one hour every day, for the purpose of examination; in addition to which, two or three themes, not very closely connected with the subjects discussed by the professor in public, were usually prescribed by him as private exercises, at certain intervals during the session.

Having myself attended the logic class in this university, I remember well the general impression which was made upon my mind by the lectures then delivered; and also the opinion which was entertained of them by the more intelligent of my fellow students. The sentiment which universally prevailed among us was, that, though the professor explained the subjects, of which he treated, with great perspicuity and distinctness, yet no useful or permanent effects could possibly result from his prelections, either in the way of promoting activity of mind, or of establishing sound scientific principles. So far from affording any inducement to the study of philosophy, the ancient metaphysics appeared to us only to act the part of a *Cerberus*, in guarding the approach, and in deterring the most resolute from every attempt to enter. Respect for the teacher, rather than any interest in the subjects which he brought before them, induced the more industrious of the students to listen to the lectures with patience, and with a decent degree of attention; yet, the well known attainments of the professor as a scholar, and the benign simplicity of manners by which he was distinguished, could not prevent his class from being emphatically, though rather rudely designated "*the drowsy shop of logic and metaphysics.*" The charm which had formerly created so much interest and attention, in relation to these subjects, was now completely dissolved. They were no longer subservient to the art of disputation, which, at an earlier period, was wont to inflame ambition, and invigorate industry, among youthful academics; and almost the only motive which now remained, to secure attendance upon this part of the course, was the title, thereby procured, of being admitted into the succeeding classes, and particularly into those which qualify candidates for the church.

This conviction of the general uselessness, and even positively hurtful consequences, of spending six or seven months in the study of logic and metaphysics, was not confined to the youth within the walls of the college. From the time that the lectures began to be delivered in English, the eyes of men were opened to the unsuitable nature of the subjects of which they treated; and the defects of the system, as embracing a very important part of public education, became every day more striking, and called more loudly for a radical reform. It was observed by those who interested themselves in this question, that the subjects introduced in the logic class, even when perfectly understood, had little or no connexion with that species of knowledge which was necessary to prepare the student, either for the speculative pursuits of science, or for the active business of life. The local situation, too, of this university, in a great commercial city, where a quick perception of utility, and a clear insight into the adaptation of means to ends, may be supposed to predominate, gave frequent occasion to animadversions on our scheme of preparatory instruction. Intelligent persons, who sent their sons to the logic class, although not themselves proficients in literature, could not fail to observe, that the subjects to which their attention was directed, had no relation to any profession or employment whatever; that the discussions connected with them had no analogy to those trains of thinking which prevail in the ordinary intercourse of society; and, in short, that nothing could be derived from prelections on such topics, which was likely in the smallest degree, either to adorn conversation, or to qualify the student for the concerns of active life.'

Institutions and individuals must occasionally change their course, if they will keep up with the advance of public opinion.—The blame of changefulness—if such it must be termed—lies, not with the former, but with the latter; and there is no just ground for that embarrassment and that feeling of shame which are sometimes manifested, when a change of measures is adopted. The judgement and the decision with which Professor Jardine proceeded in introducing improvements, will be perceived in the following paragraphs.

'During several sessions after my appointment [to the professorship,] the former practice was regularly followed; that is, the usual course of logic and metaphysics was explained by me in the most intelligible manner I could—subjected, no doubt, to the same animadversions as my predecessor. Though every day more and more convinced me that something was wrong in the system of instruction pursued in this class; that the subjects on which I lectured were not adapted to the age, the capacity, and the previous attainments of my pupils, I did not venture upon any sudden or precipitate change. Meanwhile the daily examination of the students, at a separate hour, gave me an opportunity of observing that the greater number of them comprehended very little of the doctrines explained; that a few only of superior

abilities, or of more advanced years, could give any account of them at all; and that the greatest part of the young men remembered only a few peculiar phrases or technical expressions, which they seemed to deliver by rote, unaccompanied with any distinct notion of their meaning. Impressed with this conviction, which the experience of every day tended to confirm, I found myself reduced to the alternative of prelecting, all my life, on subjects which no effort of mine could render useful to my pupils, or of making a thorough and radical change, in the subject matter of my lectures. In adopting the latter determination, I was influenced by several other considerations, though of subordinate import, in addition to those which have been just detailed.

About the period to which the above remarks apply, young men were sent to college at an age considerably earlier than formerly; and were consequently so much the more unqualified to enter upon the abstruse inquiries, connected with the metaphysics and ontology of the schools. Besides, for the same reason, more time was now occupied with the study of Greek than had usually been devoted to that language, by students in the logic class; and, as various employments, at home and abroad, which, at the period in question, began to open to our youth, drew them away from college at an earlier stage of life, their education necessarily became less systematic, and considerably more abridged. Thus, the changes which were taking place in society required a more miscellaneous and practical kind of instruction, in the first philosophy class; for we found not only that our pupils, generally speaking, were younger, but that they had less time to spare for the abstract doctrines of the ancient metaphysics.'

'It ought to be the great object of a first philosophy class to supply the means of cultivation, not to one faculty only, but, to a certain extent at least, to all the powers of intellect and taste; to call them severally into action; to present appropriate subjects for their exercise; to watch over their movements, and to direct their expanding energies; so as to maintain them in that just relation to each other, and to secure that reciprocal aid, in their progressive improvement, which seems pointed out to us by the order of nature. To secure a suitable education for young men destined to fill various and very different situations in life, the course of instruction ought not certainly to be limited to the narrow range of logic and metaphysics; but, on the contrary, should be made to comprehend the elements of those other branches of knowledge, upon which the investigation of science, and the successful despatch of business, are found chiefly to depend. In point of fact we seldom find that those who are most celebrated for learning, for eloquence, or for skill in the practical business of life, avail themselves, on any momentous occasion, of the abstract reasonings of logic, or of the subtleties of the metaphysician; while, on the other hand, such persons are constantly observed both fortifying their arguments and adorning their language, with the knowledge which they have drawn from history, from morals, from jurisprudence, and from politics.'

The course of instruction which Professor Jardine adopted is thus stated by himself.

'The system of instruction, now long established in the first class of philosophy in this university, consists of two parts; the first comprehending a course of lectures delivered daily, throughout the whole term, on the elements of such branches of science and of art as seem best suited to the age, habits, and attainments of the students; the second comprising a daily examination of the young men, on the subjects discussed in these lectures, accompanied with prescribing, reading, and correcting a progressive course of themes or exercises founded chiefly on the lectures, and executed by every individual in the class.

The term *lecture*, it may be proper to remark, has a peculiar, and somewhat restricted, meaning in the Scots universities. The common acceptation of this word is somewhat indefinite, extending to the explanation or illustration of obscure passages in ancient authors, and to general criticism on their beauties, or defects. Thus, the tutor in an English college is said to give a lecture, when, in translating the classics with his pupils, he occasionally removes difficulties, and points out, as he goes along, whatever may require their particular attention. But a lecture, as applicable to the practice of our universities, may be described as either an analytic or synthetic exposition of some literary or philosophical subject, drawn up in an expanded and popular form, and interspersed with copious illustrations, to assist the comprehension of the younger students. I here use the terms *analytic* and *synthetic* in their common, and not in their strict geometrical meaning, as descriptive of the two different paths which the mind pursues, in the acquisition and communication of knowledge; that is, either when it collects particular facts, which lead to more general facts and principles, where these can be obtained; or when, being in possession of general principles, it applies them to the explanation of such particular cases as may fall under them. In academical lectures, these two methods of investigation are sometimes separated, but much more frequently combined; according to the nature of the subject under discussion, and to the particular object which the teacher may happen to have in view. A professor, accordingly, in composing lectures to be delivered to young persons, must be supposed to have studied the several branches of his department of knowledge, with a reference to this particular end; to have selected and adapted every topic which he introduces into them, with a strict regard to the capacity, and previous acquirements of his pupils, as well as to the precise point to which he intends to conduct them, in their progress through science. He must be supposed to have read and thought for his students, nearly as they might be imagined to read and think on the subjects which he is about to communicate to them; not indeed, that he may thereby do their work; but that, on the contrary, he may employ their time and their industry, with the most important, the most suitable, and, consequently,

the most useful studies. In the prosecution of these objects, it ought to be the aim of the teacher, in every part of his lectures, to lay before his students, at the proper time, those particular elements of knowledge with which they ought to be first acquainted; to facilitate their progress towards more recondite subjects of inquiry; to prevent unnecessary labor; to obviate perplexity; to assist their endeavors; and gradually to lead them into those paths which will guide them with ease and certainty, to still higher degrees of scientific attainment Such, I conceive, is the meaning of the term *lecture*, in the Scots colleges. In addition, however, to what has now been stated, the professor will occasionally find it useful to introduce into his elementary discourses, particularly when his subject naturally suggests them, such literary incidents or anecdotes as may, at once, communicate information, and create an interest in the minds of the students; for, 'n this way, he renders knowledge agreeable, from the manner in which it is conveyed, and efficient from the powerful motives which it can hardly fail to inspire.

In modern times, numerous treatises have been written, both in our own and in foreign languages, on the subject of education. No one of these works, however, able and judicious as some of them undoubtedly are, deserves to be implicitly followed as a guide, in a matter confessedly so important; for no one of them comprehends, in all its details, the various topics which ought to be introduced into a first class of philosophy, nor sets forth those still more essential duties of the teacher, which consist in adapting his instructions to the opening capacity of his pupils; in supplying them with constant and suitable employment; and in conducting them gradually from things more easy to things more difficult, in the natural order of the sciences. The truth, indeed, seems to be, that a systematic exposition of the different methods of teaching, considered merely as an art, rather than as a practical and progressive scheme, for directing the efforts of those who are just entering upon the study of philosophy, has occupied the whole attention, and exhausted the ingenuity, of the more eminent among the writers to whom I have alluded *There appears to be still wanting a regular elementary system of academical study; which uniting speculation with practice, principles and rules with suitable illustration and exercise, might embrace the means which seem best calculated to call forth and strengthen the intellectual powers of youth.* It is of less moment, perhaps, from what branches of science or of art the materials of lectures, constituting such a system, should be drawn; provided they be carefully adapted to the actual state of information in which students, generally speaking, are found, at the commencement of the course, and agreeing in their tendency to create habits of diligence and of independent exertion.* Were it, indeed, the main object of the professor, in the first class of philosophy, to expound the doctrines

* The author's suggestions on 'means of improving the present systems of education,' are so important that we have given them a separate place in our pages.

of logic, or of any other art or science, there can be no doubt that his lectures ought to be restricted to that particular end, and the shortest and clearest explanation, which he could devise, would best serve his purpose. But, as that is only a very subordinate part of his aim, and as his leading object is not so much to convey information, as to stimulate industry, and cultivate the natural abilities of his pupils, he justly considers himself at liberty to make choice of his materials from the wide range of the sciences and arts, and as bound by no other rule, in the use of them, than that of making them all bear, more or less directly, upon the point which he wishes to accomplish.

Indeed, there is even a particular advantage gained by selecting the materials of the lectures, delivered in a first class of philosophy, from different branches of the sciences and arts. The variety of subjects, thus introduced into the course, is more likely to attract the attention of young persons of different dispositions, talents, and habits, than if the lectures were of a more systematic and homogeneous character. Some may be captivated with the philosophy of mind, and others may feel a greater interest in the department of taste, in the theory of language, and in the rules of criticism; and when the command of attention is once secured, and habits of application thoroughly formed, it is comparatively easy to transfer them from one subject to another. Besides, how various soever the subjects may be, which constitute the ground work of such lectures, it is always understood that they shall be connected, not only by the general aim of the teacher, but by the relation which subsists among themselves; and, above all, that they shall be so arranged as to conduct the student, step by step, as well through the more limited field of knowledge with which he is to be made actually acquainted, as into the more extensive range which leads to greater attainments. The method of teaching by geometrical demonstration is, without doubt, the most perfect of all the modes of communicating science; and, in proportion as the principles of that method are adhered to, in constructing a scheme of elementary education, so much more complete and successful will it be found in practice.

With regard to the selection of materials here presented to the reader as the subject of lectures delivered in the logic class, at Glasgow, it is by no means pretended that it is the best, or the most appropriate, that could possibly have been devised. Many valuable additions and changes might probably be suggested; and yet, imperfect and deficient as it may appear, it has been found by experience to answer at least some of the most important purposes of a first philosophical education. It is conducted upon principles, too, which combining elementary instruction with active habits on the part of the student, seem to be strongly recommended by the most intelligent philosophers, both of ancient and modern times. "Neque est omnino," says Cicero, "ars ulla, in quâ omnia, quæ illâ arte effici possunt, a doctore tradantur; sed qui primarum et certarum rerum genera ipsa dedicerunt, reliqua non incommode persequuntur." *De Oratore.*—"Quin ipsis doctoribus hoc esse curæ velim, ut teneras adhuc mentes, more nutricum, mollius

alant, et satiari velut quodam jucundioris disciplinæ lacte patiantur." *Quinct.* lib. 2. cap. 4.—"The business of education," observes Mr. Locke, "is not, as I think, to perfect the learner in any of the sciences, but to give his mind that freedom and disposition, and those habits, which may enable him to attain every part of knowledge, himself." '

The details of Professor Jardine's course of instruction, are the next topic in his work. These are perhaps more important in themselves than any others contained in the book; and we regret our want of room for a full statement of them. The historical sketch of the progress of improvement in college education, which occupies the first part of the volume, and to which we have given the largest space in our pages, seemed peculiarly entitled to attention. The Journal of Education is designed to be chiefly a record of facts, from which attentive minds may form their own theories.—Facts must be the basis of every rational and well-grounded attempt at improvement; and in the department of college education they are of peculiar importance. Every candid observer must be aware that neither in England nor in this country, has the progress of improvement in such institutions kept pace with that in schools.—The condition of lower seminaries generally is much more nearly what the state of society requires, than the condition of colleges and universities. This comparative defect in the character of higher seminaries is much to be regretted; and every sincere well-wisher to the best interests of society must wish to see it removed. It is impossible that colleges and universities can be of any essential benefit to a community like ours, if they adhere to a species of education which aims at little that is useful, and lays no claim to respect, but what is founded on a romantic veneration for antiquity. Seminaries of learning, if they are to be really serviceable to general improvement must endeavor to lead and not be content with following the public mind. We see that in other countries public sentiment now regards some of the once venerated seats of learning not as the sources from which proceed the fertilising streams of useful knowledge—but as the standing pools of learned sloth, sheltered by power and protected by privilege. Now nothing can avert similar results in our own country, but vigorous and efficient exertions on the part of those who control the arrangements of collegiate institutions. The demands of society ought not to receive a bare and reluctant attention, they should be promptly met, they should, in fact, be anticipated. If, in this privileged country, where science and learning enjoy the sunshine of national prosperity, and of freedom in the purest form in which it has yet appeared in the world—where there is every thing to prompt a bold inquiry into whatever is presented to the mind, and every thing to cherish the pursuit of knowledge, and stimulate personal exertion; if in

such a form and condition of society, public institutions for the promotion of science are permitted to lag, and to sink down into inactivity and insignificance, the neglect is unpardonable.

It is under these impressions, and with an earnest desire to secure a more extensive and watchful attention to this important subject, that we have devoted so much space to professor Jardine's history of improvement in the university, in which he so long discharged his laborious and respected office. Our extracts from the Outlines have served, we think, to show that public sentiment cannot ultimately be thwarted or baffled, that its demands must be complied with; that a prudent attention to the state of society will secure to literary institutions the respect and the attachment of the communities in which they are placed; and that a moderate but firm course of conduct, even in an individual, may accomplish results which shall entitle him to the gratitude of posterity. The limits of a review will not admit of a full statement of all the methods adopted by professor Jardine in his course of instruction, nor even of all the departments in which he produced a reformation. The subjects of his lectures, as presented in the Outlines, are the following: the elements of intellectual science, treated in a plain, practical, and popular style, adapted to young students; the formation and progress of language; the elements of intellectual culture and improvement, applied to the various faculties of man, and embracing the formation and refinement of taste. From the remarks on the composition of lectures for a first class in philosophy we extract the following passage, as one which contains matter highly important to teachers in every department, and glows, at the same time, with the simple and earnest eloquence of a mind sincerely and warmly devoted to the improvement of the young.

'Teachers of philosophy, generally speaking, address their pupils from written lectures or very copious notes. Experience, however, has convinced me, that a constant and slavish reading ought of all things to be avoided; and that a mode of delivery should be attempted, more or less approaching to extemporaneous speaking. There are no doubt many details, in a course of lectures, which may be read with advantage; but upon the more important and interesting parts of his subject, the professor should speak to his students from clear and just views of the matter in hand, and from the deep impression made on his own mind. The constant reader of written lectures is in the eye of youth, a sort of mechanical performer; and can seldom avoid becoming tiresome and monotonous in his delivery. How well soever he may read, he cannot give the proper advantage to the matter of his lectures, nor acquire that influence over the minds of his pupils which is placed within his reach. The frame of mind, too, in which the lectures may have been composed, the warmth and earnestness which may have been felt in the first train of thought, are usually found to evaporate

in the formal reading of them, when that train is no longer kept up in the memory, so as to warm the imagination. The extempore method, also, brings the mind of the speaker into closer contact with that of the hearer; accommodates itself more easily to the wants of the latter; enables the teacher to repeat what has not been fully conceived, to change the mode of illustration, to relieve the attention, to excite the curiosity, and to direct, anticipate, and assist the students in a great variety of ways, which are in vain to be expected from the reader of a written lecture.

The practice of reading has another bad effect, in as much as it precludes, almost entirely, the intercourse of looks and feeling which should subsist between the professor and his students, during the delivery of the lecture; for it would make but little difference, provided he were distinctly heard, if the reader were concealed altogether, and pronounced his discourse in a contiguous apartment. When, on the other hand, lectures are delivered extempore, as the expression comes warm from the active thought and animated feelings of the teacher, there is produced in the moment a species of sympathetic influence between him and his pupils, which it is not easy to describe, but of which the effects are well understood. He, too, who speaks extempore can look around with freedom, and form an estimate not only of the attention which is bestowed, but also of the interest with which the lecture is received. He perceives, from the expression of the countenance and the attitude of the body, whether the mind of the student is caught and carried along by the argument, or whether he is left behind and laboring to keep up with the progress of the discussion. The advantages arising from this intercourse between the mind and the eye, in a numerous class, composed principally of very young men, are neither few nor unimportant. They have been appreciated less or more by all teachers, and turned to a practical use by such as had sufficient skill to mark their tendency.

I have heard, from the celebrated Adam Smith, who was long professor of moral philosophy in this university, that almost every session there were some of his students, from whose countenances and general behavior he was enabled to judge whether his lectures were fully understood. There was an intelligent and composed posture of the body which he could easily distinguish from that which denoted a doubtful or unsatisfied mind. "One session," said he, "I observed an intelligent student who generally sat in the same place, with his back to the wall. When he perfectly understood the lecture, he sat with his body bending forwards, in the attitude of animated attention; but whenever he found me above his level, he threw his body back to the wall, and continued in a careless posture. That was a signal to me. I instantly retreated, took up the subject in another form; and never ceased my efforts till my marksman bent forward, and was restored to his attentive position. Then we went on harmoniously together."

The second part of professor Jardine's work is devoted to a par-

ticular account of his method of conducting the business of his class; and to some valuable suggestions for improvement in this and other departments of university business.

The leading peculiarity of the professor's method, was a progressive series of compositions or themes on the subjects of his lectures. These afforded a useful exercise in recalling and considering the subjects which the professor investigated, and thus training the mind to the invaluable habits of attention and reflection. But this was not the only benefit of such exercises: they cultivated, at the same time, a facility and accuracy in writing, which was farther aided and improved by the collateral exercise of recapitulating, orally, the substance of each lecture—a practice which tended greatly to facilitate the habit of extemporaneous address. Another valuable exercise consisted in giving, in presence of the professor and the class, an oral abstract of whatever author a student might happen to be reading at his leisure hours; another in giving full and accurate definitions on subjects proposed without premeditation; and another, in mutual instruction applied to composition and criticism.

Professor Jardine's discipline and general management were peculiarly happy. An account of these may be found in the United States Literary Gazette, for December 1st, 1825.

The character of professor Jardine as an instructer cannot be more justly or more happily given, than by applying to himself a passage from his own work.

'The possession even of professional knowledge, and the art of communicating it successfully to others, are two very different things;—though the former, as has just been remarked, is often held as an apology for the want of the latter, or even as superseding the necessity of such a qualification. The professional art, however, so to call it, comprehending that of managing a numerous class of young persons, requires an assemblage of qualities which are not always found united. An ardent and diligent search for the particular knowledge required—the arrangement and adaptation of it to the purposes of those to whom it is to be communicated—the kind, prudent, and discreet management of different characters—the wise administration of discipline—firmness and self possession in bestowing praise and inflicting censure—readiness to meet unexpected demands for information—the removing of obstacles, and the solving of difficulties—are all, in their turn, required of the teacher of philosophy.'

In all these characteristics of an accomplished instructer, professor Jardine was a model of excellence which,—if we are at liberty to use the term, when speaking of human beings,—we might justly call perfect. It has seldom, perhaps, fallen to the lot of

man to labor so long in a useful office, or with so distinguished success, or with so profound respect and heart-felt gratitude from those for whom he labored. The good old age of this venerable man differs but little from his earlier years. Though in retirement, he is still zealously employed as a reformer in education—still enjoys the light of a serene and cheerful mind, beaming a pure and exalted happiness on all within its sphere of intercourse.

The Moral Characters of Theophrastus, in the Graeca Majora, literally translated into English, to which are subjoined Explanatory and Philological Notes. For the Use of Students. Andover: 1826. 8vo. pp. 36.

The author of this little work has acquitted himself ably of the task he has undertaken. The translation, though literal, is in general neat and classical, and much of the vigor and spirit of the Greek satirist may be found in the corresponding English.

The general remarks on translation, contained in the preface, are we think, just. An ambitious and industrious student will make such a work useful, without permitting it to be *necessary* to him—he will judge of it, as of the original, for himself, and will render it subservient to his views, without an undiscriminating adherence to its decisions. Employed in this way, a translation, instead of doing harm, will be productive of much good; and to those who would abuse one by making it the substitute for exertion, the apologies and means of negligence are ever abundant. To students therefore who wish to become familiar with the meaning of this agreeable writer, we cheerfully recommend our author's work, as a judicious auxiliary to their efforts for this purpose.

'It has been remarked by an elegant and learned writer* upon classical education, that "translations are the bane of scholarship."—But this general truth, to which all scholars will heartily assent, may have its exceptions; for there are studied at our colleges, extracts from, at least, *one* Greek author, at a time when the student, from his limited knowledge of Greek, cannot fully understand them, without something more than the ordinary facilities of grammars and lexicons. This author is Theophrastus. From the abruptness of his style—from the present corrupted state of his text—from his frequent allusions to customs, festivals, and religious rites—and from his using words and

* Shepherd, Joyce, and Carpenter's Systematic Education, Vol. I. Introductory Essay.

phrases not found in any other author; or, if found, not used in the same sense, I am convinced, from my own observation, that it is seldom that a student at college, in his Freshman year, understands this author thoroughly, or relishes him with taste. I have therefore presented to him a *literal* English version of the extracts from *The Moral Characters* of this author in the first volume in the Graeca Majora; and have subjoined to it, numerous critical and explanatory notes. For having done this, I do not deem it necessary to offer any apology to the instructers of our youth. For while they cannot deprecate, more than myself, a general and free use of translations among students; as tending to destroy critical scholarship, independence of thought, patient and laborious research, and one of the great benefits derived from the study of the dead languages—the sharpening and disciplining of the mental powers; they must be aware, that the peculiarities of Theophrastus require peculiar aids. For to understand his frequent allusions to local customs, reference must be made to many books, to which few students have access.

In the translation, I have endeavored to be *as literal as possible*, without doing violence to our own language; and to give to every Greek word, its best and most appropriate word in English; and whenever the sense of a word in the Greek, cannot be expressed without using three or four in English, these are connected together by hyphens. It would have been a much easier task to have written an elegant and free translation of this author; for in that case, one would not be restrained by the peculiarities of his style, but would take his thoughts, and mould them into what form he pleased. Such a version might have sounded better to an English ear—but would not have been Theophrastus.

The extracts from *Longinus*, in the Majora, I have partly prepared in the same manner. But as the difficulties of this author consist, chiefly, in his language and thought, they may be surmounted by patient and vigorous application. I have therefore hesitated to complete and publish this work, thinking that it might not subserve the cause of Classical Literature.'

The hesitation of the translator, in this case, is creditable to his diffidence of his own judgement; but we hope, it will not have an ultimate influence on his decision. The truth had better be frankly told at once, that in many seminaries in this country, not only the pupil but the teacher needs such helps as are afforded by translation and copious explanatory notes. If judiciously used, these will be highly beneficial; and if not, the blame does not lie with the translator. A translation and a collection of notes, such as are appended to Theophrastus, if carried through a large proportion of the harder authors, would be serviceable, in a high degree, to the efforts both of learners and teachers.

The arrangement of the text, translation, and notes, in the present publication are remarkably convenient; and the execution of the work, by its beauty and accuracy reflects credit on its publishers.

INTELLIGENCE.

LONDON GYMNASTIC INSTITUTION.

A numerous and respectable meeting of persons resident at the East End of the metropolis was recently held to take into consideration the practicability of forming a Branch Establishment of the London Gymnastic Institution for those resident in this part of London.—Dr. Gilchrist was called to the Chair.

The Chairman said that if the practice of the ancients, and the successful cultivation of gymnastic exercises in Germany, and various other parts of Europe, were not decisive of the utility and practicability of such Institutions, they had now the decisive fact that such an Institution had been successfully introduced in this metropolis. The projectors have, in consequence of the distance of the Gymnasium from persons resident in that district, desired to try the practicability of a Branch Institution for the Eastern part of the metropolis. Upwards of seven hundred respectable young men had experienced the benefits of the parent Institution. He had lately been informed by Mr. Hume, that efforts would, in a short time, be made to form a Branch Establishment in the west end of the town, and he had no doubt that another would be instituted in Surrey. He concluded by adverting to the testimony of persons of high medical reputation as to the benefits that must be derived in crowded cities from the pursuit of such exercises.

Dr. Black, in moving the first Resolution, declaring the beneficial nature of gymnastic exercises, stated that the advantages were self evident.

The seconder of the motion spoke from experience of the great effects of the system. He had been a poor, emaciated, hungry looking figure of a man, with most weak hams, and the exercises of the Gymnasium had given him bulk and strength and respectability of appearance. A few morning's exercise had put to flight a complaint brought on by sedentary habits, which medicine had failed to remove, and he stood forth like one regenerated. It was generally supposed that early rising, and walking or riding, would fully suffice—this was a mistake. The Gymnasium had put into motion muscles which were never disturbed by ordinary exercises. It was, besides, no easy matter, especially for a young man, to pursue any solitary exercise for any length of time. It was supposed, most erroneously, by some, that the exercises were of a pugilistic nature. No better proof could be adduced than the fact, that many of the Society of Friends were members, and most zealously performed their exercises. The resolution was carried unanimously.

Captain Morrison, of the R. N., proposed the resolution, declaring the necessity of a Branch establishment for that part of the Metropolis. Dr. Paris, who had ably written on the subject of public health, had expressed great pleasure at the prospect of such institutions being established in the Metropolis. He could, with the gentleman who had last spoken, bear the testimony of his experience to the efficacy of the system of gymnastics, and to the highly pleasurable nature of the exercise.

Mr. Jones, in seconding the motion, said, that no higher authority would be produced for the adoption of these exercises than that of Dr. Birkbeck, whose skill in his profession was unrivalled; that gentleman was prevented by his engagements from attending, but he had written a letter on the subject, one passage of

which was worthy the particular attention of the meeting. The doctor said, 'It has long appeared to me a *desideratum* to obtain for the inhabitants of this crowded metropolis, safe, efficient, and animating methods of attaining that exercise which is so essential to the preservation of the health and strength of our population: a very large portion is confined through the day, in occupations which are quite sedentary, and often requiring very unfavorable, nay, even mischievous positions of the body, during their continuance. To counteract this preponderance of sedentary, over active pursuits, London furnishes very little invitation or opportunity, and hence it happens, internal excitement, in the most inviting forms, being abundantly provided, that the majority of those thus circumstanced are led to attempt the removal of languor, exhaustion, and torpor, by having recourse to internal *stimuli* instead of active cheerful exercise. The multiplied evils which flow from this ill contrived method to remedy the daily difficulties arising from sedentary occupation, I need not detail to you—with the catalogue, both physical and moral, you have too many opportunities to become accurately acquainted.' In conclusion the doctor said, 'My confidence, I may remark, does not rest upon the influence of the exercises of the Gymnasium upon the inhabitants of the Grecian States, as proclaimed by their poets and historians, but upon unquestionable inductions from the nature of man, as a sensitive organised being, together with the results of the few scattered experiments furnished by our own times. I need not add that I fully believe your plan must succeed, introduced under the very powerful auspices of Professor Voelker, and strongly appreciating the wants of our fellow citizens, I cannot admit the possibility of failure in the very interesting attempt to improve energies of the British nation.'

The motion was carried by acclamation.

Mr Reynolds, the Master of the Seminary near Pentonville, stated, that he had been recommended by Mr. Lawrence to try the effect of gymnastic exercises to eradicate a disordered system, contracted in the pursuit of his avocations; he had tried it with the utmost success.

A number of gentlemen spoke with great ability on the subject, and resolutions for the formation of a Branch Institution, were carried unanimously. The members are to manage it by a Committee, and it was stated, that the Central Institution would give it every assistance in its power. Thanks were voted to the Chairman and to Professor Voelker; and after a considerable number of persons had enrolled their names, and subscribed liberally, the meeting separated.

National Gazette.

AMERICAN SUNDAY SCHOOL UNION.

[The interesting intelligence contained in this article is extracted from the Second Annual report of the American Sunday School Union. We regret that our limits restrict us at present in our extracts from this report; and we would embrace the opportunity of inviting the attention of our readers to the whole article, as given in the American Sunday School Magazine for the month of June. Speaking from observation, we can safely say that in Great Britain no means have been found so effective as Sunday Schools for elevating the moral and intellectual, as well as the religious, character of the great body of the people. The same thing, to a considerable extent is true, of the cities at least, in this country.]

The demands of your Society on the labors of its managers are of so varied a character, that we have felt it necessary to appoint committees from our own number, in order to conduct its business with greater precision and despatch.

The Committee of Publication, which came into existence with the Philadelphia Sunday and Adult School Union, has a large and important field of exertion allotted to it in the operations of your board. Fifteen hundred copies of the American Sunday School Magazine, issued under the superintendence of this committee, have been published monthly during the past year.

It has been the means of diffusing a knowledge of sabbath school exertions; of leading, in several instances, to the formation of new schools and auxiliaries; and of advancing, in various ways, the interests of your society. Your Managers have observed with regret, that improper books are too generally placed in the hands of youth—books abounding with foolishness, vulgarity, and falsehood, or otherwise deficient in relation to their moral influence. And the experience of the civilised world demonstrates that the character of the man is built on the principles instilled into the mind of the child. Your board have felt desirous therefore, not only of furnishing their own schools with suitable books; but of introducing such book's into schools of a different description, and of rendering them so abundant as to force out of circulation those which tend to mislead the mind, and to fill it with what must be injurious to it in subsequent life.

The title of the little magazine alluded to in the last report, under the name of 'Teacher's Offering,' has been changed to YOUTH'S FRIEND. It was commenced in January 1825, with an edition of 3000 copies, and less than *fifty* subscribers. In August of the same year the edition was increased to 5000 and the back numbers reprinted. In April of the present year, the edition was increased to 7000, and subsequently to 10,000. This little publication is eagerly sought for by the children of our schools, and finds its way into families of different persuasions. Were the rapidity, with which it has gone into circulation, a sure test of its utility, that utility would be almost unexampled. Two thousand copies are subscribed for, in this city alone, and exertions will be made to circulate it in other places.

According to the accounts received by your board during the year, we are able to state that there are in connection with your society *four hundred auxiliaries, two thousand one hundred and thirty-one schools, nineteen thousand two hundred and ninety-eight teachers, and one hundred and thirty-five thousand and seventy four scholars.* The increase of sabbath scholars in connexion with your society, during the past year, is forty-two thousand three hundred and seventy-seven. Estimating the number of Sunday scholars in the United States not connected with this Union, at forty-four thousand nine hundred and twenty-six, gives a grand total of one hundred and eighty thousand who in this country actually receive the benefit of sabbath school instruction.

In the last report, your managers presented a general survey of sunday schools throughout the world, so far as information could be obtained; and their number exclusive of those in the United States, was supposed to be eight hundred and fifty-seven thousand nine hundred and five. Our information concerning foreign countries has not since that period, been greatly augmented; though we are able to state that Great Britain and Ireland report an increase of one hundred and ninety-four schools, six hundred and seventy teachers, and twenty-five thousand seven hundred and twenty-two scholars. If the present number of scholars in foreign countries is nine hundred thousand, and your board think the number cannot be less, and if the number in the United States not connected with this society be, as before stated; the one hundred and thirty-five thousand and seventy-four under your care being added, will give a grand total of one million and eighty thousand sabbath scholars in the world.

We are happy in being able to report, that there have been, both in this country and Great Britain, manifest improvements in the mode of conducting sabbath schools. One of these, in which your managers cannot refrain from expressing their most hearty concurrence, is the limitation of scripture lessons and the allotment of the same lesson to the class or classes which may be engaged in the study of the sacred Scriptures. Though your board are pleased with the diligence which is exhibited in committing many passages of the word of God to memory, they cannot refrain from saying that they consider the number of verses recited no unequivocal evidence of the advancement of your scholars in divine knowledge. The words which are learned to day may be forgotten to-morrow; but what is clearly understood and forcibly felt, may remain to enlighten the mind and purify the heart forever. Your board would therefore recommend to

their teachers, and they would urge it as a matter of first importance, that they discourage, as far as they can safely do so, the reciting of Scripture lessons by rote, merely for the sake of repeating a great number of verses; and that they endeavor to make their scholars understand and apply to themselves the truth of revelation. In this endeavor it is in the power of your clerical brethren to render you much assistance by explaining to the teachers, in Bible classes or otherwise during the week, the lesson to be recited on the succeeding sabbath.

Another improvement, the good effects of which are too obvious to be overlooked, is the establishment of juvenile libraries in connection with sabbath schools. In some schools the privilege of using the library is the only reward of merit, and the forfeiture of that privilege the only punishment inflicted. But the benefit of the library is by no means confined to the scholars. By it a taste for reading is created in the older inhabitants of a neighborhood, and religious knowledge, communicated in the most instructing way, finds an entrance into families to which it could gain access by no other means.

In a few of your schools, another improvement has been introduced worthy of general imitation It is the formation of those into Bible Classes who have enjoyed, for some time, the common advantages of religious instruction, which sabbath schools afford, and have arrived at a suitable age. By means of these, youth, when they have become too old willingly to submit to the usual exercises of the school, may yet receive the benefit and be subject to the restraints of religious instruction. The promotion of Bible Classes in connection with their other operations has come before your board as a subject of high interest. Facts too numerous and well attested to be doubted for a moment, speak of the value of Bible Class instruction; and your board feel constrained, by the design of their organisation, to take such measures as are consistent with their other duties, for its extension, and do therefore recommend it to the earnest adoption of every friend of their cause.

INDIAN CIVILISATION.

It will appear by the following correspondence, that the Creek Indians are alive to the great object of educating their children; and the delegation recently in Washington has appropriated twenty-four thousand dollars of their means to be disposed of, under the direction of the President of the United States, in promoting it. We see in this much to admire. Indians are made sensible of the necessity of education, and feeling the need of it themselves they seek to confer its advantages and its blessings upon their offspring. The Creeks have followed the Choctaws and the Chickasaws—and these again the Cherokees, all of whom have allotted large annuities for the same object. Thus far the great Southern tribes have acted in concert, and upon a subject which is highly interesting to humanity, and honorable to themselves. *Ontario Repository.*

Extract of a letter from Opothle Yoholo, and others, composing the Creek deputation, to the Secretary of War, dated Washington, 1st of April, 1826.

"We have consulted on our talk of yesterday in relation to the benefits derivable from a good education. It gives us pleasure to have it in our power to say, that we discover nothing in our father the President, yourself, and Colonel McKenney, but the strictest justice, friendship, and humanity, as evinced during our intercourse on subjects of peculiar character and interest. Any recommendation emanating from this high source, demands respect and attention. The examples you pointed at in Messrs. Ridge and Vann, are too striking to be resisted, and we have therefore accepted your talk, not only as the talk of friendship, but with grateful hearts as children, at a time we hope, when the threatening storm is hushed to silence, and our people left to breathe in the calm of peace, by the graves of their fathers.

We have appropriated twenty-four thousand dollars, to be placed in the hands of the President, to be applied for the education of Creek youth, at the Blue

Springs in Kentucky, entertaining a confident belief that Colonel Johnson, who is known to us, and who lives at that place, and who is represented to us a brave man, will himself see to their being treated in such a way as will accord with our expectations of a man who has deserved such an appellation from his country. Our Secretaries are authorised to enter into proper and specific arrangements with you on the subject, at a time most convenient to his leisure.—We are your friends and brothers."

[Copy.]—DEPARTMENT OF WAR.—*Office Indian Affairs, April* 3, 1826.

To O-POTH-LE-YOHOLO, and others, members of the Creek Delegation.

Friends and Brothers,—Your letter to the Secretary of War of the 1st inst. is received, in which you have assigned twenty-four thousand dollars of the proceeds of the treaty recently executed by you, for the education of your children, at the Choctaw Academy, at the Blue Springs, in Kentucky, under the direction of the Baptist General Convention. The Secretary of War directs me to convey to you the high approbation of your Great Father as also of his own, of an act which reflects so much credit upon the intelligence of the Creeks, and attachment to the best interest of their offspring; and directs also, that I prepare regulations for the government of those funds, for your sanction, and his approval. I am prepared to submit the same to your secretaries, to whom the execution of the specific arrangements are referred by you, at any time when it may suit their convenience to call at my office.

Your Friend and Brother, THOS. L. MCKENNEY.

MECHANICS' INSTITUTIONS.

On the 7th of May, 1795, Mr John Anderson, Professor of Natural Philosophy, in this University, bequeathed his valuable Philosophical Apparatus, Museum and Library, for the purpose of introducing a system of popular education to both sexes. The Professor died on the 16th January, 1796, and on 9th June following, a Seal of Cause was obtained for the Andersonian Institution, and since that time, Natural Philosophy, Chemistry, Mathematics, Geography, Botany, &c. have been taught in it. In 1800, Dr. Birkbeck introduced a class for mechanics. In 1808, Dr. Ure extended the library, and in 1822, a Museum was added to the Institution. The noble example set by Professor Anderson, has since been followed by a number of the great towns in the kingdom. In 1799, a similar Institution was founded in London, under the able direction of Dr. Garnet, till then Professor of the Andersonian Institution. The plan of the Mechanics' Class, has found its way to the continents of Europe and America.

The Mechanics' Class of the Andersonian Institution, and the Class of the Glasgow Mechanics' Institution, are in a most flourishing condition. The latter was opened in November, 1823. Messrs. Steel, Longstaff, and Deuchar, have been the successive Lecturers, on Mechanics and Chemistry, Mr. Brown Lectures on Popular Anatomy and Physiology, and Mr. Mc'Fadyen gave Lectures on Natural History. At present there are upwards of thirteen hundred Mechanics attending these classes, nearly in equal proportions. From Messrs. Claud, Girdwood and Co.'s Mechanics' shop, there are 140 Students, and from Mr. William Dunn's 56, who attend the latter class. The working models and apparatus of both Classes are now so very numerous and valuable, as to answer all the purposes of experiment. The Libraries contain upwards of 3,400 volumes. Dr. Ure gave a Lecture in aid of the fund for erecting a monument to the memory of James Watt, and Mr. Longstaff followed the example, or, in the emphatic words of the last Report of the Glasgow Mechanics' Institution, 'A testimony to the departed worth of one of the most illustrious of men;—to a Mechanic, and a Mechanic of Glasgow.'—The value of Mechanical Institutions may be gathered from the following words, which are taken from the report alluded to:—

'The Committee have to congratulate the Members of the Institution, and all those interested in its welfare, on the state of prosperity in which the termination of

its second year has found it; nor is the happiness which this reflection excites, in the least abated by apprehensions regarding its stability for the future. The difficulty attendant on its first establishment has been more than overcome; the two first trying years—those ordeals of its practicability, have passed away, and left the Institution in a flourishing condition. Altogether, the prospects which it affords, promise with no little degree of certainty, that this Institution will be as permanent as it is useful. Not only are our fellow mechanics thus put in possession of a consolidated establishment, whence they can always derive amusement and instruction of the most profitable kind, and at the cheapest rate; but the whole mechanics of Europe are furnished with an example, the adoption of which will enable them to partake of the same intellectual feasts. The scene which is now exhibiting is truly interesting; and must cause amazement to the most sceptical, at the rapidity with which learning is penetrating into every recess of society.—The Committee have been applied to from many quarters, both of note and obscurity, for information regarding the organisation of kindred institutions; a duty which they have ever felt pleasure in performing.

'The thirst for scientific instruction has not been confined to our own country, but even on the continent attempts have been made to realise the same object as this institution; and in some cases, particularly in Paris and Lyons, with encouraging success. The unhappy period has now passed away, when learning was an hereditary acquisition; and the title to its inheritance the graduation of a College education. Wide still is, and wide must ever continue to be the difference between the higher and lower classes of society, as exhibited in the external peculiarities of rank; but as moral, and intelligent beings, all classes are fast amalgamating; and man has thereby made a vast stride towards comparative perfection. We have not yet been far removed from the period when the artisan was considered, and too justly so, in the light and character of a machine; *his* hands performing the operation of his calling from mere habit—totally ignorant of the laws governing the design and execution. It is now far otherwise with the majority of Mechanics in this country. The mind participates with the physical powers in the work which they perform; and the lassitude of systematic drudgery is superseded by the deep and intense interest of discovering the multifarious laws of nature which are constantly developing themselves in the operations of mechanical labor. That insuperable obstruction, the high price of learning, which for ages barred the approach of the lower orders of society to the fountains of knowledge, has now been removed. The establishment of Mechanics' Institutes has undoubtedly done much in hastening on this state of society so different from the past. Education bestowed without *price*, is too frequently received without *profit*. There is in man a propensity to undervalue every thing which costs him neither pains nor labor in its acquirement. That system, therefore, which places the lower orders on their own dependency for the acquirement of education; with just so much of encouragement held out by the influential classes as may tempt them to the task, is assuredly the happiest invention, if viewed in its issue, which characterises the present times. It has been said of the Scottish youth that it was a stain in him who could not spell his catechism. The time is arriving, when it will be considered a stain equally obnoxious in that individual, who cannot, scientifically describe the laws and principles which govern the operations and manufactures with which he is professedly conversant. When such a period shall have arrived, may we not hope, that science shall have made unbounded progress, that social order shall have been better consolidated, and that that jarring and clashing of interests and feelings among the different classes of society shall, in a great measure, have disappeared.—*Hist. Acc. of the Gram. Sch. of Glasgow.*

EARLY ATTENTION TO DOMESTIC EDUCATION.

On the 9th May, 1740, the Magistrates and Council of Glasgow received a petition from James Lochead teacher of Cookery, mentioning "that he being regularly educated by his Majesty's Cooks, under whom he served, in the art of Cookery,

Pastry, Confectionery, Candying, Preserving and Peckling, and of making of Milks, Creams, and Syllabus, Jellies, Soups, and Broths of all sorts, and who taught to dress and cover a table, and to make bills of fare, for entertainments of all kinds, and that of late he had taught some young ladies, to their own and their parents' satisfaction; and that for instructing of his scholars, he is obliged to provide upon his own charge, flesh, fowls, fish, spices, and some other ingredients, but when dressed lie on his hand for sale, by which he is a loser, and will be obliged to lay aside his teaching, unless he is assured in carrying it on, and therefore craving a yearly allowance for his encouragement;" which being considered, "the Magistrates and Council agree to give him ten pounds yearly, for his encouragement,"—a sum equal, at that time, to the salary of a master in the Grammar School. *ib.*

AMERICAN ASYLUM FOR THE DEAF AND DUMB.

From the Missionary Herald for September.

The Directors in the tenth Report make the following statement with respect to the terms and conditions, upon which the Deaf and Dumb may be sent to the Asylum.

The annual income, accruing from the permanent fund, is expended in defraying the current expenses of the Asylum. The greater this income, the less, of course, is the charge made to each pupil; and thus throughout the union, any State, or any individual, or any association of individuals may equally participate in the benefit of the grant made by the general government to the Asylum.

By pursuing this course, the Directors have been enabled to reduce the annual charge for each pupil, to one hundred and fifteen dollars. How soon, and to what extent, they may still further reduce it, must depend on the avails of the land already sold, and yet to be sold, in Alabama.

This annual charge falls far short of the expense of providing for the necessary wants, and comfort, and instruction of each pupil.

Thus, in fact, the Asylum is constantly dispensing gratuitous aid to all who wish to receive it; in a mode, too, which recommends itself, by its impartiality and permanency. Any other mode would lead to invidious distinctions; to insuperable practical difficulties in carrying it into effect; and to such a speedy annihilation of the permanent funds of the Asylum, as would result in the complete destruction of its continued and extensive sphere of usefulness.

On the subject of education the Report contains the following paragraphs.

The mechanical department has continued to receive that attention which its importance demands. With the exception of only two or three individuals, who, from peculiar circumstances, have been excused, all the male pupils, during the past year, have devoted a few hours each day, to the acquisition of a trade.—Persons of skill and experience are employed to teach them. Their progress has been satisfactory. Measures have been adopted to give permanency to this department of the Institution; and every male pupil, who in future comes to the Asylum, will thus have the opportunity, while he is acquiring useful knowledge, of preparing himself to provide for his support when he shall return to his family and friends.

The pupils who receive legislative aid from their respective States, are generally sent to the Asylum for a term of four years. In this time, high expectations ought not to be formed of their intellectual improvement. Considering the great number of the Deaf and Dumb yet to be educated, and the importance of affording *even a moderate degree of useful instruction* to as many of them as possible, a period of four years is as much, perhaps, as they ought to expect from the public bounty. This period, however, in the case of other children and youth, who are in possession of all their faculties, affords them the bare rudiments of a common English education. Let every proper allowance, then, be made for those who labor under great and peculiar disadvantages; and let not too much be expected of them, or of those who are entrusted with the difficult and laborious task of their instruction.

The whole number of persons who have received the benefit of the Asylum, is 221. Of these 106 have gone from the institution; leaving 115 for the present number. The State of Massachusetts has supported 77; 13 have been supported, in whole, or in part, by New Hampshire; eight, in the same manner, by Maine; and 18, by Vermont. The rest have been kept in the Asylum at the expense of their friends.

No person is received into the institution, who is under ten years of age, or over thirty; nor is any one admitted for a less term than two years.

HAWAII.—SANDWICH ISLANDS.

Extract of a Letter from Mr. Goodrich to the Corresponding Secretary of the American Board of Foreign Missions.

'The state of things at this station is very interesting. The house of public worship will not contain half that assemble to hear the word of life. The chiefs have lately begun to build a new meeting house of much larger dimensions.—Schools are rapidly increasing in all the eastern half of this island; and all that seems to be wanting is books and teachers. I am unable to supply one twentieth part of the call for books. Some have already left the school, commenced by us about ten months since, and have gone out to teach others; and many other teachers are immediately wanted. I have taken eight or ten persons from different lands to educate for teachers, who, finding their own food, are no expense to the mission. Most of them will soon be qualified to commence the business of instruction. A wide field of usefulness is open here on either hand.'

[A view of the state of schools, and of the progress of education generally, at the various missionary stations would, we think, form an interesting subject of contemplation to the friend of intellectual and moral as well as of religious improvement. An article embracing a wide and systematic survey of this kind is in preparation; but the necessary researches have hitherto delayed its completion.]

KOSCIUSKO SCHOOL.

The Kosciusko School, for the education of Free Colored Youth in the United States, is an institution worthy of the age, and of its enlightened and generous donor.—This school, which it is proposed to establish in the vicinity of Newark, N. J. was organised at a recent meeting of the trustees of the African Education Society in that place. The intention is to appropriate the Kosciusko fund, and to raise a similar sum for its endowment. The origin of the Kosciusko fund, and consequently of the name of the school, is explained in the New York Observer as follows: "That distinguished champion of civil liberty, on his last visit to the U. States, left in the hands of his friend and compeer in patriotism, the venerable Thomas Jefferson, a will, of which he was appointed the Executor. By this will, he gave to Mr. Jefferson a fund, the available amount of which, at this time, will be about $13,000 to be employed in liberating enslaved Africans, and bestowing upon them such an education, 'as, (to use his own words) would make them better fathers, better mothers, better sons, and better daughters.' The illustrious and lamented executor, in his life time, intrusted the management and application of this sacred fund to Benjamin L. Lear, Esq. of Washington City, and one of the Board of Trustees; and we are authorised to state, that the appropriation of the fund, upon the principles recommended at the above meeting, and adopted by the trustees, received the decided approbation of Mr. Jefferson."

Geneva Gazette.

LIVINGSTON COUNTY HIGH SCHOOL.—GENESEO, NEW YORK.

The Committee designated to manage the concerns of the Livingston County High School, have chosen a scite for the buildings of this institution, near the old Town House, on the eminence, about half a mile east of the main street in this

village; and we are happy to state that such proposals have been received as will, in all probability, enable the committee to close, within a short time a contract for their erection. We understand that every apparatus necessary for the use of a school upon this plan, will be procured, and every arrangement made for the commencement of the school so soon as the buildings shall be completed.

When the general health of this village is considered—its location, and its exemption from the many allurements to dissipation to which students are exposed in cities and larger towns, it must be admitted that a place better fitted for a literary institution, can nowhere be found. A more beautiful site for the buildings can hardly be imagined. The prospect from this eminence is one of the finest in the state. *Geneseo Journal.*

PHYSICAL CULTURE AND MEDICAL ADMONITION.

It is with much pleasure that we inform our readers of a periodical paper to be devoted chiefly to the above objects. The Medical Intelligencer has, we understand, passed into the hands of Dr. J. G. Coffin, whose intention is to make it a vehicle of useful information, as acceptable to parents, and to the community at large, as to physicians. The abilities and other qualifications of the new editor, are extensively known and appreciated: this circumstance, as well as that of his having contributed to the pages of our Journal most of the articles on physical education, would make it superfluous or improper to dwell on this point.

The most material deficiency, perhaps, that has ever existed in prevailing systems of education, is the want of instruction regarding man's corporeal structure and capacities. Most of those acts or habits of imprudence, which we daily see laying the foundation of fatal disease in persons of every condition in life, proceed from a want of information respecting the human frame, and the means of preserving and improving health. The attention now so generally excited on the subject of physical education will, no doubt, diminish the deplorable frequency of such cases, by furnishing means and opportunities for invigorating the body, and protecting it from injury. More than this, however, is needed. Implements and a ready hand are good things; but they can effect nothing without intelligence to guide them. So it is in the culture of health: opportunities and means of exercise are valuable; —but a well informed mind is requisite in order to use these to advantage. Man's physical formation and habits were obviously designed to furnish sources of happiness; and education, we repeat it, is seriously defective, while it leaves him unacquainted with the structure of his body, the proper methods of enlarging its capacities, and of improving and prolonging its powers of action.

In every seminary, this subject ought to receive attention, as a branch of useful knowledge, and of practical instruction.

The Medical Intelligencer, in its new form, will, in the mean time, supply the requisite information to families and individuals; as it will contain the useful elements of medical science, in a popular and intelligible form. That this paper may be rendered equally instructive and interesting, will be evident to those of our readers who enjoyed opportunities of attending the course of lectures on the physiology of man, delivered last winter, by Drs. Ware and Bradford.

COLLEGE COMMENCEMENTS, 1826.

The great number of these interesting exhibitions puts it out of our power to enter into them in detail. The general impression produced by them seems to have been favorable to the interests of literature and creditable to the character of instruction in our colleges and universities. Our want of room for particulars we regret the less from hearing that a sort of Annual Register of colleges in the United States, is about to be published by a citizen of Massachusetts.

FRANKLIN HIGH SCHOOL.—PHILADELPHIA.

The Franklin High School is now opened under the most flattering prospects. The room appropriated by the Institute is very large, and well calculated for the purposes of the school. It is furnished, upon the most approved plan, with desks capable of holding two pupils each, and arranged in rows leaving passages between them. At these desks 304 pupils can be seated. In the recitation rooms, which adjoin the great room, there are circular seats and tables, at which the lessons are heard. To prevent noise, the rooms and the stairs are covered with thick carpeting.

The number of pupils present at the opening of the school, was 252; and there can be no doubt, that the school will soon be supplied with the whole number which the rooms can accommodate.—*Nat. Gaz.*

RENSSELAER SCHOOL.—TROY, N. Y.

Circular to the Citizens of Villages and School Districts.

A plan has been proposed by the Honorable Stephen Van Rensselaer, of Albany, for extending to every class of citizens the benefits of those departments of scientific knowledge, which are most intimately connected with the common concerns of life.

For this purpose young gentlemen are prepared for giving instruction upon his plan, at a school established by himself for this and for other objects, in Troy, N. Y. in the year 1824, which was incorporated by a legislative act, in March 1826. These instructers are sent to different districts, with directions to conduct courses of instruction as follows:

They are to give lectures on the evenings of Mondays, Wednesdays and Fridays, to popular classes, on experimental Chemistry, with its applications. Young gentlemen, from four to ten in number, selected by the evening class, are to be taught upon the Rensselaer plan; that is, they are to be present and assist in the preparations for the evening lectures and experiments, which they are severally to repeat in the form of experimental lectures on the following days. The schoolmaster of the district ought always to be one of the experimental class.

By this method, several residents may be qualified, at a very cheap rate, for instructing others; so that every individual of every vocation may, in a few years, become familiar with the principles and manipulations of experimental chemistry, with their applications to the arts and manufactures, as well as to agriculture and the other various concerns of life, without any material loss of time.

The course of instruction is not limited to chemistry. Natural philosophy and natural history will be taught on different evenings upon the same plan. Those who attend the popular course, will be compensated by much pleasure and profit; though the principal object should be to qualify a number of residents in every district for perpetuating the practical sciences among those whom they will aid most in all their important operations. It is presumed, that the disinterested munificence of the patron of this plan of education, will be duly appreciated by every individual to whom it is made known, and that sufficient sums will be paid by those gentlemen and ladies, who attend the *Evening Course* of lectures, to defray the expenses necessary for instructing the *experimental class.*

Chemical apparatus is now so far simplified, and collections in Natural History are now so easily obtained, that any school district can afford the necessary expense for perpetuating these sciences. Fifty dollars will procure apparatus and specimens for giving a very profitable course in chemistry, natural philosophy, and natural history, with their application to agriculture, domestic economy, the arts and manufactures. One hundred and fifty dollars, economically expended in procuring apparatus, &c. will be sufficient for a course as full as any school district will need. Where the districts are very small, four or five, or any other convenient number, may unite and fit up a laboratory in a central situation, where a definite number from each school may be taught annually, until every

youth in each district shall become experimentally acquainted with those useful sciences, and with their application to daily exigencies.

Though this undertaking is of vast importance in its tendencies, it is unquestionably practicable. Should it succeed, it must necessarily improve the state of society more than any other scheme hitherto proposed. When the human mind receives a bias in favor of the study of nature, it is immediately withdrawn from all vicious and frivolous pursuits. No one will question the correctness of the often repeated saying, that "the next step to the contemplation of Nature, is that of Nature's God."

Samuel Blatchford, President; Amos Eaton, Lewis C. Beck, Professors.

Rensselaer School, Troy, N. Y. June 17, 1826.—*Geneva Gazette.*

GYMNASIUM IN BOSTON.

This valuable acquisition to the city is now open; and, from the large number of pupils of various ages, and the high gratification it seems to afford, it promises to meet if not surpass the expectations formed of its usefulness.

NOTICES.

WORKS IN THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.

Elements of Moral Philosophy: comprising the Theory of Morals and Practical Ethics. By John L. Parkhurst. Concord, N. H. 1825. 12mo. pp. 257.

This work is written with much of the zeal of one who regards the christian revelation as the source of all pure morality, and who wishes to make ethics the avenue to truth as exhibited in the scriptures. The whole character of the work is well adapted to this purpose: it is familiar and unassuming in thought and language, and simple and intelligible in its arrangement. The author's intentions are highly laudable; but his success would have been greater, we think, had his mind previously undergone a more rigid discipline on the elements of intellectual philosophy—the basis of the science on which he treats. His work is now a very good popular essay on the subject of moral philosophy; but it might have been made something more: it might have been rendered a work of philosophic rank and merit.

As a reading book for families and schools, the Elements will be very useful in the way of enlarging and improving the mind, and placing the duties of life on an elevated basis.

The chapter on Emulation and Ambition will, we hope, do much good among teachers. It speaks plainly on the evils arising from emulation, and the attempts commonly made in schools and other seminaries, to clothe it in the garb of an angel of light, while in reality it is only a specious modification of selfishness.—In this part of Mr. Parkhurst's work, however, there would have been more clearness and more directness, had he set out with discriminating between emulation, and that virtuous desire of meriting approbation, which mingles love and respect for others with all movements of the mind which revert to self. That the desire of approbation is a pure principle of action, which may be successfully transferred to the aid of instruction, needs no demonstration to those who remember that it enters into the impulse to duty towards parents, and benefactors, and the Supreme Being himself. And every teacher who cultivates it attentively and judiciously, will find it much more generally applicable, and more productive, too, of good results, than the selfish principle of emulation.

On the whole this work is one which may do extensive good,—a higher praise than could have been merited by a work of more distinguished intellectual rank, but of a less decidedly religious character.

The Juvenile Philosopher; or Youth's Manual of Philosophy. In four parts: Part I. Natural Philosophy. Part II. Astronomy. Part III. Chemistry. Part IV. Physiology. Second revised edition. Enlarged, and adapted to the use of Schools and Juvenile Readers. Geneva, N. Y. 1826. 18mo. pp. 372.

'As a *school book* the Juvenile Philosopher was not intended to supersede any work of real merit, but rather to supply a supposed deficiency; to furnish schools with a convenient and cheap manual relating to the *elements of natural science*—subjects too much neglected in the education of youth. That these subjects ought to be more generally studied, must be evident to all who consider the peculiar aptitude of most children and youth to examine the objects of nature, and investigate her operations; who consider the importance of early habituating youth, not only to be accurate observers of facts, but also to reflect on what they observe; to reason and judge correctly; to draw useful conclusions and derive salutary impressions from their observations: when it is also considered how many, for want of seasonable instruction, grow to manhood ignorant of the names, properties and uses of some of the most familiar and useful objects in creation—ignorant of the structure of minerals, plants, animals, and of their own persons; and remain through life incapable of discoursing, in appropriate terms, of these subjects.'

The object of this school book is an excellent one; and its execution is very creditable both to the compiler and the publishers. A dictionary embracing the scientific terms used in the work, and the addition of marginal questions, would, we think, be serviceable in a future edition. In the meantime, the pupil's dependence for these advantages must be on his teacher; who should furnish, as far as practicable, the illustrations which such a text-book requires, not merely in the way of oral explanation, but by performing as many as possible of the experiments, or by aiding the pupils in their attempts at the same thing. The latter method will be found more entertaining to the pupils, and not less useful; whilst it will save time to the instructer.

The Juvenile Philosopher is entitled, we think, to a place in every school; as it furnishes an uncommon quantity of that kind of knowledge which is useful in all situations in life.

Geography for Beginners: or the Instructer's Assistant in giving First Lessons from Maps, in the style of Familiar Conversation. Accompanied with an Atlas. Being intended as the first, or Introductory Book, to a series of Geographical Works, by William C. Woodbridge, and Emma Willard; of which, the second book is entitled 'The Rudiments of Geography,' the third book, 'Universal Geography.' By Emma Willard, Principal of Troy Female Seminary. Hartford, 1826. 18mo. pp. 110.

This is a fair attempt at rational, intelligible, and practical instruction. Very young children may here acquire some just and accurate notions—not of the magnitude or distance of the sun or of Herschel, but of the more remarkable and interesting features of the topography of their vicinity, and the geography of their own country; from which they proceed to that of foreign regions, comparing, as they go on, every object that is laid before them in the book, with something within the range of their own observation.

This little work, in the hands of an intelligent mother or primary teacher, may put a child in possession of more useful information than is to be found in most of the larger geographies;—not that it offers such a multitude of facts, but that it

selects the familiar, the intelligible, the important,—those which will make practical readers, practical thinkers, and useful agents on the stage of actual life.

But we would rather have the writer speak for herself.

'Authors have heretofore appeared to think that if they wrote a geography, they must make out an entire system. A book for children must be small, and hence they have stated more and more in generals, as they have gone downwards in the scale of age. This course appears to me the reverse of that which the structure of the mind requires. The author here only begins to teach the science. She has been desirous that the child should understand as he goes, rather than that he should go far. To accomplish the object of making the pupils understand the subject, the author has here entirely departed from the common arrangement. Instead of commencing the study of maps with the map of the world, which is much the most difficult for a child to understand, the pupil here begins, in the most simple manner imaginable, to draw the map of his own town. From this he goes to a map of the United States, merely containing the boundaries of the states, then to one on the common plan, and last in the course he takes the map of the world; omitting till this time the subject of latitude and longitude. The author having found the subject of latitude the most difficult part of her task, has devoted a considerable portion of her work to it; but no more than in her opinion is required by the difficulty and importance of this ground work of the whole science. She has left the subjects of religion, government, &c. entirely untouched. This work is large enough to begin with. A child of good abilities, with the opportunities of instruction afforded by a common school, will do well to learn it thoroughly in a year; and by this time his book will be worn out, and one of a new kind, like the second part of this system, will please him better. A few pages might be added, giving a short general view of these subjects. These pages, a child might, indeed, commit to memory, but, conveying no adequate ideas to his mind, they would, in the estimation of the author, be much worse than nothing. They would give to the child the bad habit of using without inquiry, words of whose import he is ignorant. The general tendency of these passages would be to give him a disgust for study; the particular effect, as regards the subjects thus treated, would be to make him suppose that he had gained what he still needed to acquire, while it took away the zest of novelty.

The author has here adopted a method of comparing and classifying, which, so far as her knowledge extends, is new and original. In this work, no principle, stated as important in a former one, is abandoned; but the system is supposed to be simplified, and therefore improved. Taking from our own country a standard by which to measure objects belonging to other countries, is, as the author believes, the order in which the mind naturally proceeds. We always reckon the unknown from the known.

Another advantage in the classifications on this plan is, that one single number is the key to a whole subject, and this key can give the absolute as well as the comparative size. For example, the number 4 placed near a river, indicates that the river is 4 times the length of Connecticut river. The length of that river being reckoned at 400 miles, we have at once the real as well as the comparative length of the river. On this plan, the numbers on the map express a direct, but on our former plan, an inverse, ratio. That is, in the case of rivers, on the plan here adopted, the larger the river, the larger the number placed near it; on the other system, the larger the rivers the smaller the number.'

Mrs. Willard is, we presume, extensively known to our readers as a lady of distinguished ability and uncommon experience in this department of instruction. She has labored successfully in the higher branches of education; but her present effort possesses an originality of plan, and philosophic justness of conception regarding the objects of education, and the culture of the infant mind, which will neither be found less acceptable nor less useful, that they have been devoted to an elementary department of common instruction.

The editor of this Journal has, in common with others, been deemed sanguine in the persuasion that geography and history can be taught in the matter of fact

way he has so often inculcated. Here is a fair opportunity of bringing his method to the test. Let attentive *parents* try the use of this little work with their children, at home, and ascertain whether geography can be taught in a purely practical and popular way in the very first stages of education.

In one point of view, the Geography for Beginners must be useful to all instructers of young children: it gives full and simple and pleasing explanations of maps; and whatever may be the merits of the theory of education on which it is founded, it cannot fail to be very serviceable to the class of learners it is meant to instruct.

An Epitome of Geography, with an Atlas. By J. E. Worcester. Boston, 1826. 18mo.

Instructers who have made use of this author's Elements of Geography, have hitherto taught their younger scholars from a compendium written by a different author and on a different plan. This jarring in the stages of instruction is a serious disadvantage to the young as their minds are neither sufficiently comprehensive nor well furnished to make due allowances or reconcile apparent contradictions.

That the Epitome will be found thoroughly accurate in details the character of Mr. Worcester is a sufficient pledge: It is likely to prove highly interesting as well as instructive to young learners; and we hope that it will be speedily introduced in all common schools. Many of the current abridgements of geography are finely adapted, in many respects, to intelligible and practical instruction; but do not contain the quantity nor the accuracy of information, which might reasonably be expected, even in common schools. Mr. Worcester's little book will be found valuable in this respect from its comprehensiveness, and the *judgement* exercised in selection.

We would mention as particularly entitled to commendation the neat and systematic Tables contained in the Atlas. The author's views and plan in this work, however, will be rendered more distinct by his own statements in the preface.

'The work entitled *Elements of Geography, Ancient and Modern*, by the author of this Epitome, is adapted to the use of academies and the higher schools, and to pupils somewhat advanced in their education, and it has accordingly been adopted by several colleges among the books which are required to be studied before entering on a collegiate course.

The object of the author in preparing this Epitome has been to furnish a manual adapted to the use of pupils of an early age, who may afterwards study the larger work, and also to a numerous class of young persons of both sexes, whose means of education are too limited to admit of their studying thoroughly, while at school, a more extended treatise.'

The Epitome it will be perceived therefore is intended for a different class of learners from that for which Mrs. Willard's is prepared. The former is designed for young learners of the common age for commencing the study of geography, but the latter may be used with children just leaving the stage of infancy.

The Franklin Primer, or Lessons in Spelling and Reading, adapted to the understanding of Children; composed and published by a Committee, appointed for the purpose by the School Convention of Franklin county, May 25, 1826. Greenfield, Massachusetts. 18mo. pp. 36.

Amidst the indications of approaching legislative measures for elevating the standard of instruction in common schools, it is gratifying to observe the spirit of improvement at work in narrower spheres, and a county convention of school committees taking the business of practical reformation into their own hands. This result is the more pleasing that it is in the instance under notice peculiarly successful. The method adopted in the Franklin Primer is simple and natural. We have here no useless columns of rare and hard words, which the scholar will hardly meet again in the course of a life time's reading. The book is arranged in lessons so as to present an analysis of every portion of reading exercise: this analysis con-

sists of all the words in a lesson placed over it in columns for spelling. The little reader thus enjoys the advantage of entering on his task with the previous preparation of having spelled and syllabled every word in his lesson; and should his memory fail in any word, he has only to revert to it, and recognise it in the spelling columns.

This little book is one of the most ingenious improvements in this branch of instruction, that has hitherto been recorded in our Journal.

One step farther we would suggest to the able author of this Primer; (and it would, we must confess, be a wide deviation from the beaten track;) but from the ingenuity and skill displayed in his present production, we gather assurance that the suggestion will not be slighted by him

May not the order of nature be followed a little farther; and the 'composition' be made to precede the 'analysis'; so as to enable the child to commence with reading and descend to spelling? The infant does not learn to recognise a *tree* as such by studying first the roots, then the trunk, then the twigs, then the bark, then the leaves. His eye and his mind grasp the whole object, and do not descend to particulars till afterwards: he does not analyse till compelled to do so.

To apply the principle involved in this illustration to the business of teaching the art of reading, is no new thing in some countries; and in these this method has been found invariably successful. A fondness for system is now fast displacing it, but the more modern plan neither teaches faster nor more thoroughly.

We would not leave this highly meritorious production, without adverting to its excellent adaptation to the minds of very young children. *All* the reading lessons are simple, easy, intelligible and natural in their style; and they will prepare the little learner to read with an unassuming and lively manner, in works of a higher order.

A Just Standard for pronouncing the English Language; containing the Rudiments of the English Language, arranged in Catechetical Order; an Organisation of the Alphabet; an easy Scheme of Spelling and Pronunciation intermixed with easy Reading Lessons: to which are added, some useful tables, with the names of cities, counties, towns, rivers, lakes, &c. in the United States; and a list of the proper names contained in the New Testament, and pronounced according to the best authorities. Designed to teach the Orthography and Orthoepy of J. Walker. By Lyman Cobb. Revised Edition. Ithaca: 1825 18mo. pp. 168.

This Spelling Book has peculiar claims to attention. The appellation of a 'Just Standard' some teachers will hardly think due to a work which follows Walker so rigidly, in most words; while the advocates of Walker may point out inconsistent deviations from that orthoepist, such as *e* before *r* being represented as having the sound of *u* short, whilst *i* before *r* takes the sound of *e* in *met*. In orthography the upholding of antiquated final *k*, in spite of the decision of prevailing usage, may justly be objected to.

Mr. Cobb, might, we think, have done a signal service to education, by publishing a corrected Walker's dictionary, or a vocabulary of doubtful and disputed words. He has evidently bestowed much attention on such subjects; and even his spelling book wears a formidable air of authority from the labor and research by which it is characterised. The Tables annexed to this volume, are uncommonly full and accurate. The whole work indeed is highly creditable to the author's intelligence and industry.

For our own part, however, we confess we have no great partiality to spelling books, and think very favorably of the more recent plan of using only a primer and then an easy reading book of a simple and intelligible character; the little scholar making his own spelling book, by spelling every lesson he reads; and taking his pronouncing lessons from the Dictionary. Under the management of a

careful teacher, this will be found a much more efficacious course, than endless drilling on the dull unmeaning columns of a spelling book.

BOOKS FOR CHILDREN.

The Juvenile Miscellany, for the instruction and amusement of youth. Boston: September, 1826. 18mo. pp. 107.

The prospectus of this publication was copied in our last; and a slight and cursory perusal of the first number as our own sheets were correcting was all the attention which it was then in our power to devote to it. A more deliberate reading, if it has enabled us to detect what seem to be some slight faults, has by no means diminished the pleasure derived from the leading features of the work. For the Miscellany will be found to bear reperusing, and to be worthy of it.

The first question which naturally arises respecting a Juvenile book—Is it intelligible?—may be very safely put in this case. Though we cannot help thinking that the work would be greatly aided in this respect by assuming a given age within which its readers should be supposed to be. A subdivision in the arrangement would then enable every young reader to find something adapted to his capacity. This point is the more deserving of attention from the importance of forming very early in life a taste for reading—without which, whatever talent there may be, there can be no intelligence.

The Miscellany has one very valuable recommendation: it is always interesting and often amusing. Books which must be laboriously perused under a sense of duty, are not likely to be useful to Juvenile readers. Let pedagogues and scholastics declaim as they may; if children are to receive instruction to advantage, it must be given in a pleasing form. There is throughout the work more of a happy blending of pleasure with profit than can be found in most books of the kind.

The taste which pervades the pages of the Miscellany is generally of such a character as cannot but have a powerful though tacit influence on the minds and style of its readers. A few improprieties in phraseology, however, and errors in the typography seem to have escaped in the unavoidable confusion of a first number.

But it is the moral influence of this publication about which parents will feel most anxious. In this respect there is, we think, very little to which even a rigid critic could object, and certainly much that has a tendency to cherish what is 'honorable and lovely and of good report.'

On the whole, the editor of the Miscellany and her contributors have already stamped on this work a character for useful, entertaining, and elevated thought, which creates high expectations for the future numbers, and which lays a well-founded claim on the gratitude and the support of the community.

ANSWERS TO CORRESPONDENTS.

Received since our last:

Emerson's Primary Lessons in Arithmetic, Willey's First Spelling Book, Bossut's Phrase Book, and Word Book, in one volume, Cook's Student's Companion, Kelley's American Instructer, Boston Prize Book No. VI., Blake's Historical Reader, Report of the Ohio Committee of Common Schools.

Proposed Society of Education.

This subject, we are gratified to find, is attracting the earnest attention of the friends of improvement in various quarters. Many interesting and valuable letters have been received, containing suggestions of great moment. When a few more shall have come to hand, we shall transcribe the substance of them, so as to give the more important views of all, in one connected form.

In the meantime, more communications might be serviceable to this great object, and enable whoever may take the lead in such an undertaking, to conduct the business with greater certainty of success.

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ON THE SYSTEMS OF EDUCATION ESTABLISHED IN UNIVERSITIES, AND ON THE MEANS OF IMPROVING THEM.

[From Professor Jardine's Outlines of Philosophical Education.]

The Under-graduate Course, (continued.)

With regard, in the next place, to the writing of essays on the subjects discussed in the lectures, it cannot fail to be considered as a most fruitful source of improvement, and eminently suited to the circumstances of English colleges. I am perfectly aware, that essays are prescribed at present in the universities of England, and in that of Ireland; but, as I have already remarked, they are usually confined to subjects unsuitable for very young students, and frequently so restricted, indeed, as to exclude under-graduates altogether from competition. The great use of this kind of exercise must arise from the skill with which it is adapted, not only to the acquirements and previous habits of the pupil, in the outset of his philosophical studies, but especially to his progress in knowledge and maturity of talent, according as these may happen to be displayed, at every subsequent stage of his advancement. At first, the subject prescribed ought to be simple, and, at the same time, susceptible of copious illustration. The essay itself ought not to be long; and the pupil should even be directed, in his earlier efforts, how to distribute his materials, and to connect his paragraphs. In these acts of attention and assistance, we discover the judgement and usefulness of the teacher; and in prosecuting the plan of essay-writing, to the extent to which it might easily be carried within the walls even of the larger English colleges, a thousand occasions would present themselves to the intelligent tutor, for giving a greater degree of efficiency to our mode of teaching, than we ourselves have ever been able to attain.

The improvement of the students in philosophy, taste, and composition, would be promoted at once, and by the same means. Their natural abilities would receive regular and appropriate culture; and, what is more valuable than all these advantages put together, the young men, taught in this way, would acquire a force, and ready use, of all their intellectual faculties; and would be qualified for higher pursuits in the paths of science, or for engaging more successfully in the business of active life. The object of the teacher who follows this practical method, as I have already repeatedly observed, is not so much to convey knowledge, as to put into the hands of his pupils an instrument for acquiring it by their own exertions; not so much to give them an abstract view of mind, in general, as to make them thoroughly acquainted, from experience and reflection, with all its powers and modes of operation, in the acts of perceiving, remembering, forming judgements, conducting a process of reasoning, and generalising particular inferences. He undertakes not to confer upon them the riches of learning to any given amount, or of any specified description; but rather such a degree of improvement, and such a ready use of their intellectual powers, as like the philosopher's stone, will convert into gold every thing to which they are applied. In the outset of the course, accordingly, he regards knowledge as valuable to youth, on hardly any other account than as it constitutes the materials of thinking, and the means of carrying on a practical system of instruction; convinced that, if he succeed in training his students to reason, to inquire, to arrange their thoughts clearly, and to clothe them with ease in a suitable form of expression, the principal end of an academical education will assuredly be attained.

It is not to be inferred, from any thing now stated, that the judicious perusal of select authors, even during the course of the session, ought to be altogether disregarded. On the contrary, the lecture system when properly conducted, by frequent reference to works connected with the several subjects discussed, necessarily leads to the perusal of a variety of publications; and the only danger attending it, is, that the reading of the students may become desultory and promiscuous, and consequently unprofitable. To prevent this, I usually specify such parts of every work as ought to be read in the meantime, being those, of course, that are most nearly allied to the business in hand; requesting the young men to postpone the farther examination of its contents till the ensuing vacation, when they have more leisure to profit by such studies. During the term, there is no time for extensive reading, the attention of the students being chiefly taken up with exercises which they have to write, and with preparing for the daily examinations. The lectures, indeed, so far from precluding the advantage of private study, are

meant to afford directions for reading: while the practice of essay writing carries with it, to the student, a very strong inducement to consult authors, both in order to obtain materials, and to ascertain the justness of his own conclusions. The great object, however, at this stage of his progress, is the improvement of his faculties, to which mere reading is supposed to contribute but in a subordinate degree, and is therefore not made the principal part of his occupation.

In justice, however, to a system, of which I have not hesitated to point out what appear to me the defects, I may add, that the English plan of education by means of books, conversation, and abridgements, is infinitely superior to the Scots mode by lecture, when not accompanied with regular examinations, and a systematic, progressive course of themes. Of the latter mode of conducting philosophical education, if education it ought to be called, I am unwilling to speak in terms which its absurdity suggests to my mind. But it is not to this very imperfect method that I now direct the attention of the reader; and, while indulging in a few remarks on the plan pursued in the English and Irish colleges, I may be permitted still farther to observe, that in the subjects selected by the tutors, there seems to be, in some instances, at least, a neglect of mental philosophy, and of that natural logic which is founded upon the knowledge of our own intellectual powers. In one college, classical literature is almost the sole study; in another, mathematics, and the higher parts of algebra, engross all the attention; but in scarcely any, do we find a regular process of intellectual culture, going on, conducted with a reference to the natural order of the human faculties, their growth, their progress and maturity. It is, therefore, with the view of supplying some defects, and correcting some errors, as upon the most candid construction they appear to me, in several of our academical institutions, that I have presumed to bring into public notice, the plan of teaching the first philosophy class in this university, now firmly established from a conviction of its usefulness.

To give full effect, however, to this method of teaching philosophy, the office of tutor, in the several colleges, ought to be permanent. Such an arrangement seems absolutely essential to success, in the art of teaching; for this art, like all others, being founded on practice and observation, must derive, from that quarter, all the improvement of which it is susceptible. Upon the erroneous supposition, that the art of teaching consists in the mere communication of knowledge, it has been inferred, that wherever a person has acquired a certain portion of science, or literature, he is immediately qualified to instruct others. But knowledge and intellect are not the only qualifications of a teacher, nor even the most important.

On the contrary, it is sufficiently confirmed by experience, that the most profound scientific attainments, the finest imagination, and the most exquisite taste, do not, of themselves, qualify their possessor for becoming a discriminating or useful teacher. The knowledge which will most avail him, in aiding the endeavors of youth, is that which is drawn from a strict attention to the developement of the intellectual powers and habits, and from a close and continued intercourse with his pupils, in all their efforts, in their success, and in their failure.* A teacher, no doubt, when he enters upon his office, must gain experience at the cost of his students, on the same principle that a young physician improves in skill, at the hazard of his patients; but in colleges, where the tutors have their eyes fixed on senior fellowships, or church-livings, from the moment they enter upon their duty, it is impossible that much progress can be made by them in this difficult art. In this way, there is a constant and rapid succession of inexperienced tutors thrown into the most active department of colleges; and education, viewed in reference to its most important objects, never can rise above a state of infancy. The tutors relinquish their office, just when they are becoming qualified to fill it. The appointment, indeed, according to the notion prevalent in such places, is seldom considered of high estimation; it may be filled by any one who has been elected to a fellowship, and it is abandoned by all, whenever a favorable opportunity occurs. In such circumstances, then, we may safely infer there can be nothing of that ardor and enthusiasm so necessary to carry a teacher through the drudgery of his professional duties. There can be no such thing as an art of education. The old and the inexperienced quit the helm, and the vessel is left to the direction of those who have scarcely made one voyage. In any other art, it would be thought singular indeed, if those who were appointed to teach it were persons who, from their age or practice, had the fewest opportunities, and the most limited experience, who were to continue in that office only a very short time, who considered it merely as a temporary employment, and who, moreover,

* To a hasty reader there may appear to be ideas stated here which are unfavorable to monitorial instruction. A little reflection, however, will serve to remind those who peruse these pages with attention that the author objects to the brief term commonly assigned to the office of tutor and to the inexperience necessarily consequent on such an arrangement. The above remarks were not meant to apply to a rotation of the office of tutor in circumstances where every individual is previously furnished with practice and experience, as would be the case on the monitorial plan, and least of all can the observations of professor Jardine apply to cases where the whole business of instruction is conducted under the eye of the professor, as would also take place under the new system, and as actually took place in professor Jardine's own class, in the department of composition, which was conducted by mutual instruction—the more accomplished students superintending the less advanced.—*Ed.*

during that short time, so far from having a sufficient inducement to exert their talents to the utmost of their power, would have their minds fixed on a better situation, soon to be enjoyed by them, not as the reward of services, but as the mere contingent of seniority. If this would be thought absurd in every other department of life, why is an exception to be made in the case of one of the most difficult, and, certainly, not the least important, of all arts, the art of teaching.

It is to no purpose to urge, in support of the present system of appointing tutors, that many of them have distinguished themselves by great ability and success in the discharge of their office. It would be wonderful indeed, if among such a number as exercise that duty, and amid such a variety of genius and taste as must occasionally adorn it, there should not be found some individuals possessed of the proper qualifications; who are seen to take pleasure in communicating knowledge to youth, and in being instrumental in their progress; who do not allow their minds to be alienated from their office by future prospects; and who find, in the consciousness of discharging a weighty obligation, a motive sufficient to support the exhausting labors with which it is attended. Such instances, however, are not to be attributed to the spirit of the system. They are rather to be viewed in the light of exceptions, and as exhibiting, in strong colors, the manifold advantages which would result from a mode of appointment, calculated to secure all the talent and zeal of the teacher, for the improvement of education. The lower seminaries all over the country, are provided with masters on a better principle than the colleges in either of the English universities. They are filled by men who make education their profession; and who, having their eyes fixed on nothing beyond it, devote all their time to its details, and all their talents to its improvement.

I am not ignorant that another argument, if such it should be called, has been repeatedly employed, in support of the general plan of instruction pursued in the English universities. It has been maintained, that, with all their defects, these institutions have sent out into the world more great men—a larger number of persons distinguished in the different walks of science and literature, as well as in all the pursuits of public life—than almost all other establishments of the same kind. The views upon which this argument is founded are extremely fallacious, and prove rather, that native genius cannot be depressed by defective systems of education, than that eminent talent, or even great acquirements, are to be attributed to any mode of teaching. The greatest men whom the world has produced, have owed but a very slight obligation to the care or skill of masters; and, when we peruse the biography of Milton, Locke, Newton, and Johnson, we are at a loss to discover upon

what other ground, than that their names were entered in a college record, any merit has been taken by the seminaries wherein they happen to keep their terms. Is it imagined, that if men of genius were to give the history of the various steps of their secret studies, and the accidental aids by which they gradually attained celebrity, they would have much to ascribe to the forms, and lessons, and commentaries, of a college tutor? It were to be wished, indeed, in order to place this mode of reasoning on its proper foundation, that we had a list of the thousands who might have been scholars and men of science, if they had been suitably instructed; for, it is worthy of remark, that the merit of academical institutions is to be estimated, not by the few men of uncommon talents who have been there educated, but by their success in cultivating ordinary ability; in raising the lowest mental endowments to that degree of eminence which nature has placed within their reach; and, above all, by the tendency which they have to confirm habits of industry and a love of research. In short, we must not draw our conclusions in this field of inquiry from particular instances; and we have it not, in general, in our power to found them upon a comparative estimate of what is actually performed; because we cannot determine how much is due in every single case to natural gifts, how much is to be ascribed to individual exertion, and, of course, how much belongs to the teacher, and how much to the system of the school. We must, therefore, form our opinion on the subject on principles connected with general experience relative to the human faculties, and the most natural method of *culture*; on the analogy of nature in the developement of our mental energies; and on the practice of those who have been most successful in instructing the young, whether in action, fact, or principle. To this criterion I am willing to submit the propriety of whatever I have advanced, either in the way of stricture, or of suggestion.

The above observations, though they apply more immediately to those colleges, where the system of education is avowedly different from that pursued in Scotland, have, perhaps, some claims on the attention of all teachers who are appointed to conduct young men over the threshold of philosophy. The leading principle of method which I here venture to recommend, is derived from the analogy of nature, and the experience of mankind, in every other branch of instruction, which prove to us that, in learning any art, mere precept is unavailing; that the beginner, in short, must work as well as listen; otherwise he has no chance of arriving at proficiency in the object of his pursuit. By a system of practical education, well regulated, and judiciously enforced, the student is enabled to become his own teacher; and when he has been accustomed to exercise his faculties,—to arrange his thoughts,

whether for prosecuting his researches, or for committing them to paper, he finds that he can do for himself, what the most learned professor, without such means, could never have qualified him to perform. The result, on the whole, is that, unless professors condescend to become teachers, not only communicating instructions to their students; but subjecting them to a regular course of active labor; and thus obtaining an opportunity of knowing the progress of their minds,—of correcting their labors, and of directing them to the means of higher degrees of excellence,—the effects of education will only be experienced by the chosen few, whose natural talents enable them to follow out, and profit by the ingenious lectures of the professor.

In the university with which I have so long been connected, the practical mode of education is zealously followed in all the departments of the undergraduate course. In the class of moral philosophy which succeeds that of the logic, the professor meets his students at two separate hours, each day, during the session. At the first of these, he delivers a lecture on the principles of ethical science, embracing such inquiries into the nature of the human mind, as are connected with the character of man, considered as a moral agent, and are necessary to unfold those states of thought and feeling, known by the terms instinct, appetite, desire, passion, and affection. In this way the student is led to consider the origin and authority of moral sentiment, and to trace the rise of those energetic principles which actuate and impel the vast mechanism of human society;—as also, the source and distinction of moral good and evil, of praise and blame, of reward and punishment. He is made acquainted with the opinions of the learned, in ancient and modern times, respecting the obligations of morality, the qualities of mind and of action in which virtue consists, and the various standards of moral excellence which have been proposed in different ages and nations, to determine the true source of approbation in the human mind.

Those subjects are followed by a consideration of the principles of law and government, so far as these are founded on the moral nature of man;—tending to illustrate the gradual progress of refinement in the history of civil society.

At the second hour of meeting, the students are examined on the various topics of the lecture which I have just described;—or they listen to the remarks of the professor on the essays they are enjoined to write, which he reads daily in the class;—or, according to a practice long established in that department, they translate to him a portion of some of the ethical works of Cicero, or of the Novum Organon of Lord Bacon. This latter exercise, like the lectures of the college tutors in English universities, is accompanied with a commentary on the part of the professor.

In the class of natural philosophy, the last in the under-graduate course, the professor likewise meets his students at two separate hours every day. At the one, he gives lectures on the elements of matter and motion,—on mechanics, pneumatics, hydrostatics, optics, and astronomy. It being understood that the students have previously made some progress in mathematics, he applies demonstrative reasoning to those parts of his subjects, which admit of it; while, in other branches, he illustrates the laws and processes of nature by a regular course of experiments carefully prepared, and exhibited by means of a very expensive and ingenious apparatus, enlarged from time to time, as the progress of the arts required.

But it is chiefly by following out a regular system of examinations and exercises, that my respected colleagues, in these two departments, render their labors available to the great object of academical instruction. Nor is there any part of the business of the class more agreeable to the young men themselves; as a proof of this, it deserves to be mentioned, that, besides the exercises which are required from the whole class, there are not a few presented as the fruits of voluntary study and exertion on the part of individuals. The spirit of emulation and the desire of improvement, which are thus excited, make the labor light and even pleasant. The student has the pride of appearing before his master and his companions, in the character of an author; and however incorrect or trivial his performances may be, they afford him at least the means of regulating thought,—of improving his reasoning and his style, and of measuring the progress which he makes under the training to which his mind is subjected. In a word, the manifold advantages of this system, both to teachers and pupils, can only be appreciated by those who have had the experience of their happy effects; and that this practical method of philosophical instruction, is not more generally adopted in our academical institutions, is only to be accounted for, by the very familiar fact, that public functionaries are, for the most part, more inclined to rest satisfied with merely following out the line of duty which custom has prescribed, than to inquire very anxiously how their offices might be rendered more efficient for promoting the interests of the community.

I am not inclined to flatter myself with the expectation that any material change, in the system now alluded to, will be adopted, in consequence of any recommendation which is contained in these pages. But every person deeply interested in the success of education is entitled to expect, that whatever is candidly proposed, as an improvement in the plan of conducting it, should receive, at least, an impartial consideration. Nor is there any thing, I should hope, in the constitution of colleges in the south, positively to preclude all changes whatsoever, in the mode of applying the industry

and genius of their students; for a statute to this effect would be tantamount to a determination, not to admit any of the improvements which the progress of science may bring to light, how essential soever to the furtherance of the object for which they were originally founded. Every change which is calculated to improve philosophical education must be in perfect accordance with the spirit and intent even of the most ancient of such establishments; and it is always to be presumed, that, if the founders had possessed the knowledge and experience which has elsewhere led to any particular innovation, they would have been the first to adopt it. For instance, the statutes left in force, at the last visitation of the university of Glasgow, required that the professor of the first class of philosophy should teach Aristotle's logic, and those parts of his metaphysics which treat of ontology and the human mind. But the present professor does not think that, by any change of subject which he has introduced, he has deviated in the smallest degree from the spirit of these statutes; and his immediate superiors, accordingly, have sanctioned the modifications which he has thought it expedient to make, both in the subject-matter of his lectures, or in the details of teaching. This is nothing more than that accommodation to circumstances which the imperfect nature of all human institutions is found to demand. Laws become obsolete from the change of manners and opinions; and, although permitted to remain on the statute-book, have no more force than if they had never been in existence. So should all enactments which restrict education fall into desuetude, whenever they are found to oppose the advancement of sound views and of useful knowledge. And were the plan of teaching philosophy, which is here recommended, to be adopted in our universities, the reproach which is so often thrown out against them, of not teaching any thing connected with the business of active life would, in a great measure, be removed.

But I fear not so much the opposition which arises from statutes and the caprice of founders, as that generated by prejudices which spring up in learned societies, and are, in some degree, fostered by the habits and modes of life which there prevail. The magnificence and splendor of ancient establishments, with the power and privileges with which they are endowed, have contributed to separate them, in some very important respects, from almost every other learned society, and to create a feeling of superiority, which does not easily brook any change in their habits and institutions. It is to this constitutional pride and importance that I allude, when I anticipate opposition from the habits of thinking which prevail among some of those classes of men to whom these observations are addressed; for nothing is likely to be so ill received by them as an allusion to supposed defects and imperfections, except, per-

haps, a comparison of their system with that of similar establishments.

It is not my object here to moralise on human weakness, nor to remonstrate with human folly; but, certainly, neither great age nor great wealth ought to be made the ground on which to raise a claim of superior excellence for a public seminary of education. Antiquity, be it remembered, is the infancy of society; and riches, in this case, as in all others, reflect honor on their possessor, only in proportion to the wisdom with which they are employed. Besides, the revenue of a college ought to be viewed in the light of wages, and not in that of an unconditional donation. It originally sprang from the piety or liberality of individuals who wished to promote the education of youth; on which account, it becomes the bounden duty of the members of colleges, to provide, with the utmost assiduity, that the means afforded for the instruction of the young persons committed to their care, shall not only be such as they have hitherto been, but the best that the improved state of information, in modern times, can possibly supply. It continues, however, to be a reproach on some learned societies, that a prejudice in favor of certain modes of teaching is apt to become so powerful, as to withstand every effort to improve them; and that, while every other order of professional men are disposed not only to borrow but to steal improvements from one another, teachers in universities avoid all communication and intercourse, think it beneath them to take a hint which might prove useful, or to profit by the experience of those who may have ventured out of the common track. Such conduct is neither wise nor liberal. Engaged in the same dignified and important work, upon which the great interests of society so much depend, it ought to be the duty of every public teacher to exert himself to the utmost, whether by adopting new methods, or by improving upon the old, to raise higher and higher the intellectual and moral character of the human being.

But I forbear insisting upon matters so obvious and commonplace. No man doubts that it is incumbent on him to do his duty in the best way that it can be performed. The only difference of opinion is respecting the means; and, to come to a right judgement on this head, nothing more seems necessary than candid inquiry and a fair comparison. In this, as in all other questions as to right and wrong, better and worse, the force of truth must ultimately prevail.

HISTORICAL SKETCH OF THE FREE SCHOOLS OF MASSACHUSETTS.

(Continued.)

[*From Letters on the Free Schools of New England, by James G. Carter.*]

THE Province Charter from William and Mary, in 1691, ordained that the 'territories and colonies commonly called or known by the names of the Colony of Massachusetts Bay, and the Colony of New Plymouth, the province of Main, the territory called Accada, or Nova Scotia; and all that tract of land lying between the said territories of Nova Scotia, and the said province of Main, be erected, united, and incorporated, into one real province, by the name of our Province of Massachusetts Bay, in New England.' In this charter,* all grants before made to any town, college, or school of learning, were confirmed. The laws which had been passed under the colony charter of Massachusetts, for the regulation and support of free schools, were essentially confirmed, the first year after the province charter was received, by the following act of the 'governor, council, and *representatives*, convened in general court or assembly.'

'And be it further enacted by the authority aforesaid, that every town within this province, having the number of fifty householders or upwards, shall be *constantly* provided of a schoolmaster to teach children and youth to read and write; and where any town or towns have the number of one hundred families or householders, there shall also be a grammar school set up in every such town, and some discreet person of good conversation, well instructed in the tongues, procured to keep such school, every such schoolmaster to be suitably encouraged and paid by the inhabitants. And the selectmen and inhabitants of such towns respectively, shall take effectual care and make due provision for the settlement and maintenance of such schoolmaster and masters.'†

These together with the subsequent provisions, that grammar schoolmasters should be approved by the selectmen of the town, and the minister of the same, or of a neighboring town, constituted

* 'Provided, nevertheless, and we do for us, our heirs and successors, grant and ordain, that all and every such lands, tenements and hereditaments, and all other estates, which any person or persons, or bodies politic or corporate, towns, villages, *colleges*, or *schools*, do hold and enjoy, or ought to hold and enjoy, within the bounds aforesaid, by or under any grant or estate duly made or granted by any general court formerly held, or by virtue of the letters patent herein before recited, or by any other lawful right or title whatsoever, shall be by such person and persons, bodies politic and corporate, towns, villages, colleges, or schools their respective heirs, successors, and assigns forever, hereafter held and enjoyed, according to the purport and intent of such respective grant, under and subject nevertheless, to the rents and services thereby reserved or made payable, any matter of thing whatsoever to the contrary notwithstanding.' [Province Charter.]

† Prov. Laws, Chap. 13, sec. 4.

all the legislative inteference, which was deemed necessary to carry into effect the whole system. Indeed, laws were hardly necessary for such a purpose, in a community so deeply impressed with the importance of the subject.

With such a system, and so executed, few could be found so unfortunate as not to have learned the rudiments of reading, spelling, writing, and arithmetic. The standard of common education, at the period of our history before the revolution, was probably not very high. But it was much, to give to *all* such opportunities, as enabled them to acquire knowledge sufficient to transact business in the common concerns of life. It was by these means, limited as they were, that a whole community were prepared to know their rights, and to appreciate the free enjoyment of them. The free schools, and the laws for their support, probably acted and re-acted upon each other. The laws originating in those enlightened minds, which could foresee and estimate their effects, raised the character of the people, by the dissemination of knowledge, to such a degree as enabled them to trace their happy condition to its true source. And the intelligence and improved condition of the country, were the surest pledges, that a liberal construction would be put upon the laws for the schools. During the strong excitement, which prevailed, when the causes of the revolution were hastening on the crisis, the attention, which had been paid to the subject of education, was, probably, for a time somewhat diverted. All attention and interest were absorbed by the momentous questions in agitation, upon the result of which depended the existence of a nation. But when the independence of the country was achieved, and the Federal and State constitutions adopted, the public attention was again turned to the system of free schools. The zeal with which they were now patronised, and the liberality with which higher seminaries were founded, and endowed, evinced that a grateful posterity were not unmindful of the treasure, which had been committed to their keeping..

The constitution of Massachusetts, adopted in 1780, recognises the importance of education in the following words:

'Wisdom and knowledge, as well as virtue, diffused generally among the body of the people, being necessary for the preservation of their rights and liberties; and as these depend on spreading the opportunities and advantages of education in the various parts of the country, and among the different orders of the people, it shall be the duty of Legislatures and Magistrates, in all future periods of this Commonwealth, to cherish the interests of literature and the sciences, and all seminaries of them; especially the University at Cambridge, public schools, and *grammar schools* in the towns.'

With such a clause in the constitution, we should have anticipated some legislative provisions for education, sooner than at the end of

nine years. But the institutions and systems of schools, which had obtained under the Province charter, together with the exertions of individuals, were all the means enjoyed for the diffusion of knowledge before the year 1789.

The provision under the colony charter, that towns of more than five hundred families should support *two* grammar schools, and *two* writing schools, had been sunk under the Province Charter. By the statute of the 'Commonwealth,' towns of fifty families are obliged to support a school for reading, writing, &c. only *six months* of the year, instead of *constantly*, as before; and towns of *two hundred* families are obliged to be provided with a grammar school-master, instead of towns of only *one hundred* families, as under the Province law. The State was under some temporary embarrassments, soon after the close of the revolution, which is the only reason that occurs for such a departure from the policy, which had been pursued in regard to schools, from the earliest settlement of the country. The resources of the people were certainly much more adequate to the support of schools, after the establishment of a government among themselves, than while they were kept in duress by colonial dependence; or while they were sacrificing every thing to achieve their independence. But the effect of a law, so comprehensive in the detail as the school law of 1789, cannot be estimated with great precision, without taking into account the character of the people for whom it is intended. If the law is intended to force a reluctant people to exertions *much* beyond their inclination and ability, it will probably be explained away and evaded, till it is reduced, in some good degree, to their wishes. But on the other hand if the law indulges a relaxation from exertions, which the people have been accustomed to make, and which they have made cheerfully, realising a full equivalent in their own condition, they will execute the law upon a construction even beyond its intention. This was the fact in the case of the school law. What the law neglected to provide for, was supplied in some degree by the exertions of individuals. The laws for the support of the *primary* free schools have never been executed upon a niggardly and parsimonious construction. The public mind upon this subject has gone much before the laws. They have followed at a large distance, rather than stimulated and controlled any interest. The towns have, in many instances, made appropriations for the primary schools, of twice the sums of money necessary to answer the letter of the law. The schools provided for in the above law, are open to children of all classes, and the expense is paid by a tax on the people. Each town is made responsible for the execution of the laws within its jurisdiction. And, to give interest and efficacy to the system, it is made the duty of the minister and selectmen, or a committee ap-

pointed for the purpose, to overlook the schools,—to visit them, at least, once in six months,—to employ and approve the instructers,—and direct in the selection of school books. Although there are some instances of negligence and indifference, this duty is generally performed with cheerfulness and fidelity.

New England possesses some pecular advantages for carrying into effect its system of education. It is divided into small townships, or separate corporations, of from five to seven miles square. The responsibility of these small corporations is more likely to ensure a more vigilant discharge of their duty, than if they were larger, and the subject of their responsibility less immediately under their inspection. As the population is scattered over almost the whole territory, and the children are often young, who attend the primary schools, it has been found convenient to divide each town into smaller districts for this object. Thus a school is carried to the door, or at least into the neighborhood of every family. Each township constitutes from four to twelve districts; and none are so far removed from all schools, that an attendance on some of them is not easy. The appropriations for schooling in each town, are adequate to support a school in each district, from three to six months in the year, and often longer. The money is raised by a tax on the *property* of the town, principally, a very *small* proportion arising from the *polls*. It is distributed among the districts, sometimes, in proportion to what each pays of the tax; but oftener, a more republican principle prevails, and it is divided according to the number of scholars. There is one other principle of distribution, which is sometimes adopted, in those towns not satisfied with either of the above methods. That is, they divide the money raised as above among the districts, in the compound ratio of the number of scholars and the tax paid in such district. But this requires so much mathematics, that even those, who acknowledge the justness of the principle, commonly content themselves to do less justice, and spare their heads the trouble of calculation.

These appropriations are expended, a part in the summer months for the advantage of the younger children, and a part in the winter months for the accommodation of those, who are more advanced in age, and whose labor cannot be spared by their poor and industrious parents. The summer schools are taught by females; and children of both sexes, of from four to ten years attend, females often much older. In these schools from twenty to forty, and sometimes twice that number of children, are taught reading, spelling, and English Grammar, by a single instructress. In the more improved of this class of schools, writing, arithmetic, and geography are added to their usual studies. In the leisure time between lessons the female part of the school, are devoted to the various

branches of needlework. These primary schools, however humble the branches taught, and young the children, to whom they are taught, have a strong influence in forming the characters of the young. Although the progress in studies may be inconsiderable, yet they are important for the notions of order, decency, and good manners, which they inculcate; and for the habits of attention and industry which are there formed. The whole expense of a school of this kind, taught by a female, exclusive of the house, which in the country costs but a trifle, does not exceed from two to three dollars per week. For this very inconsiderable sum, thirty, forty, or fifty children, are not only kept from idleness and consequent depravity, but are taught much which will be useful to them in life. In the winter months an instructer is employed, and arithmetic, geography, and history, are added to the studies of the summer schools. These schools bring together for instruction those children and youth, whose labor is too valuable to be dispensed with, in the season which gives the agriculturist most employment. The total expense of a school of this kind amounts to from six to ten dollars per week; and it contains from thirty to eighty, or a hundred scholars.

Such are the schools where the mass of the people must begin, and now, *end* their education. The next in order from the primary schools, *were* the *grammar schools*, properly so called. These were established by the law of 1789, in all towns containing two hundred families. The object and the tendency of these higher schools were, to raise the standard of instruction, and elicit talents and genius wherever they might be found. Many through the medium of these schools have found their way to the University, and become distinguished in society, who might otherwise never have known their own powers, or thought it possible to aspire to the advantages of a public education. But this part of the system has never received that attention, which its importance demands. It has always been viewed with prejudice, and been thought to be an institution for the accommodation of a few, at the expense of the many. In many places, for want of a thorough knowledge of the subject, those for whose particular advantage the grammar schools were intended, have been most opposed to their support. The law, therefore, has been borne with impatience,—has been explained away and evaded,—till at length, the prejudice has been sent into the legislature, and the whole provision is struck out of the statute book. At least, the remnant which remains can be of no possible use for the encouragement of the schools. All towns in the Commonwealth are now excused from supporting grammar schools, except five or six of the most populous. And these are precisely the towns, which least need legislative interference. A law of the

legislature to oblige Boston, for example, to make appropriations for schools, is preposterous, when that city already expends upon the education of its children and youth, nearly as much as the whole remaining state. But during the series of years, while the grammar schools have been neglected, the friends of the free schools have had an appeal to those liberal and enlightened minds, which could better foresee the happy effects of a different policy. And this appeal has never been made in vain. Whenever the public interest in schools has declined or been diverted, by the various necessities, which press upon a people, in a comparatively new country, it has soon been roused again, and stimulated in the proper direction. If appropriations have not been so liberal as might be wished, those have always been found, who would encourage the cause by endowments for schools of a higher order. These schools or academies, as they are more frequently called, have been generally founded by individuals, and afterwards made corporations with grants of land or money from the state authorities. They have now become very numerous throughout New England. In Massachusetts, they are found in every county, and oftentimes within ten or fifteen miles of each other. They have generally been made a class above the *grammar schools*. Here, young men are prepared for teachers in the primary schools,—for mercantile life,—or for the University. This class of schools is not entirely free. The instructer is supported in part by the proceeds of funds, which have arisen from private or public munficence; and in part by a tax on each scholar. For the rich and those in easy circumstances, these schools answer the same, and probably a better purpose, than the grammar schools, contemplated by the late law; but they are out of the reach of the poor.

If we compare the encouragement afforded to schools and seminaries of learning, by the pilgrims of Plymouth and New England, with their resources; and then in connexion compare the encouragement afforded them at the present day, with our resources; we shall be astonished and disgusted with our niggardly and parsimonious policy. We seem to rely entirely upon the liberality and munificence of individuals to redeem our degeneracy in this respect. What would our ancestors have thought of their posterity, those ancestors, who nearly two hundred years since, amidst all the embarrasments of a new settlement, provided by law for the support of *grammar schools in all towns of one hundred families*, '*the master thereof being able to instruct youth so far as they may be fitted for the University*?' or what would our fathers have thought of their children, those fathers who, in 1780, enjoined it in their *constitution*, upon '*the Legislatures and Magistrates, in all future periods of this Commonwealth, to cherish the interests of literature and the sciences, and all se-*

minaries of them; especially the University at Cambridge, public schools and GRAMMAR SCHOOLS *in the towns;*' if they could have foreseen, that after one relaxation and another, in forty years, those children would so far forget their duty to 'cherish the GRAMMAR SCHOOLS' as to strike them out of existence? What the peculiar condition of the people of this state is, which renders the support of this class of schools unnecessary, impolitic or unjust, I have never been able to understand. And although I have been at some pains on the subject, I have never yet learned, what the arguments were, which carried the repeal of the law through the last General Court. Arguments there must have been, and strong ones, or such an alarming innovation would never have been suffered, upon an institution, to which the people, till quite lately, have always expressed the strongest attachment. Was that class of schools considered unnecessary? If so, what has made them unnecessary? Either the people have no longer need to receive the kind of instruction those schools were intended to afford; or they must receive the same instruction in some other way. The policy, and in our government, the necessity of eliciting the talents of the country, by every possible means, will be demonstrated, when we consider how many of our most distinguished Jurists, Statesmen, and Divines, have received their early instruction in the primary and grammar schools of some obscure country village. None, I believe, can be found, who will say, the people have no longer *need* of such facilities, for bringing forward to notice the promising talents of their children, and of giving to our country some of its greatest benefactors. Then, by abolishing the grammar schools, it is expected the people will receive the same instruction in some other way. But two possible sources occur, which promise in any degree to supply the chasm in the system: the primary schools on the one hand,—and the academies on the other. Neither of these sources will answer the expectation or be adequate to the purpose. The primary schools will not come up to the necessary standard, either as they are contemplated by the law, or as they are, and promise to be, supported by the people. And the academies are out of the reach of precisely that class of people, who most need the encouragement offered by the late grammar schools. The effect of the repeal of the law, upon the primary schools, is as yet, but matter of conjecture. It is probably expected by some, and it is certainly to be hoped by all, that striking from the system the class of schools immediately above them, they will be improved so as in some degree to supply the place of the higher schools. If this expectation had any foundation, or if there were any probability, it would be realised in some good degree, it would not be so much a matter of regret, that the

late measure was adopted. But several reasons induce me to believe, that the expectation is altogether visionary; and that the measure will have a tendency to sink, rather than improve the condition of the primary schools. Although the late law has not been executed for some years upon a very liberal construction, yet the knowledge that it existed, had some effect, to raise the character of instructers in the lower schools. To benefit the schools, all possible motives should be offered to raise the qualifications of the teachers. The repeal of the law has removed the strongest barrier to prevent the obtrusions of ignorance. Experience has long since proved, that the approbation of the selectmen as to the character, and of the minister, as to the literary qualifications, is no sufficient check, upon the pretensions of incompetent instructers. Those, who aspire to the place of teachers in the primary schools, are very frequently found in the families of the very men, whose approbation is required. And however vigilant and candid they may intend to be, in the discharge of their duty in this respect, paternal affection is a most deceitful medium, through which a father looks upon the merits of his son. And the condition of the clergy, in the country, particularly at the present day, is not such as would allow us to expect from them, a very positive and decided veto in such matters, upon the pleasure of the principal inhabitants of their towns. We have now no checks, but the very inefficient one above described, to prevent the employment of incompetent instructers. And since the interest and influence of the candidate for such employment, as well as the interest and influence of his friends, will always be upon the wrong side; it is much to be feared, that the mass of instructers, in the primary schools, will receive no other opportunities for improvement, than are afforded in the very schools, where they commence teaching. If this view of the subject is correct, the strong tendency of the present arrangement must be, to sink the condition of the primary schools. And the only, or at least, the greatest counteracting influence, which has existed heretofore, is removed, by abolishing the late grammar schools. Few towns have supported a grammar school the whole continued year, at one place. They have employed several instructers, *qualified as the law directed*, and by opening several schools of this kind at the same time, have made up the amount of a year, all perhaps, during the winter months. This evasion, which was a very general one in those towns, which took the trouble to evade at all, you will perceive, was virtually putting the grammar schoolmasters into the primary schools. The consequence has been what we should expect. Although the grammar schools have in many places disappeared in form and name, yet the people have a tolerable equivalent, in the vastly improved condition of the primary schools. Even those, who have commenced teachers from

some of these schools, have possessed all the advantage of the grammar schools, intended by the law. The existence of the law, therefore, even with so very inefficient an execution of it, has had the direct tendency to improve the condition of those schools, in which grammar masters have been employed; and an indirect influence on the other schools, by better qualifying those who have and will commence teachers, with no advantages above those afforded in the common schools.

The repeal of the law obviates the necessity of the evasion, which I have described as operating so favorably upon the primary schools. And as the qualifications of the instructers are diminished, the character of the schools must decline. To this, probably, all will readily assent. But it may, perhaps, be said, the qualifications of the instructers are as high, for all practical and useful purposes, as they were under the former law, as it was executed. In the first place it is not fair or just to reason from the law as it *was executed*, rather than as it *should have been* executed. In the next place, allowing ourselves so to reason, we shall not I believe, arrive at the same result. The qualifications of the grammar schoolmasters, were, that they should be 'of good morals, well instructed in the *Latin*, *Greek* and English languages.' This class of schools is now abolished, and '*Geography*' is added to the former qualifications of the teachers of primary schools. Allowing the two classes of schools to have been perfectly amalgamated, which is a great concession in point of fact, as well as acknowledging a great perversion of the law; we have dispensed with Latin and Greek, and require Geography in their stead. I have no desire to lessen the estimation, in which geography is held as a study peculiarly adapted to our primary schools. And I am ready to concede, that probably ten will wish to study geography, where one would wish to study Latin and Greek. Now, if an instructer, who is qualified to teach Latin and Greek, could not by any possibility be qualified, at the same time, to teach Geography, and all the minor studies of our schools, I should consider myself as having conceded the whole argument. But this is not the fact. These qualifications are so far from being incompatible, that they *generally* exist in a superior degree in connexion with each other. The connexion to be sure, is not so essential, that a man may not be a very good teacher of Latin and Greek, and still know very little of any thing else. Still as the studies are arranged in all our schools, academies, and colleges, where young men are prepared for teachers, all the elementary studies, including geography, are generally taught before the languages. So that by adding them to the qualifications, even if it were *never* required of the instructers to teach them, we ensure more mature and accomplished scholars in those branches, which are more frequently and

generally taught. I would not be understood to discuss, much less to approve this arrangement of studies, for those destined to be scholars by profession. Such arrangements exist, and I avail myself of the fact for my present purpose. But besides ensuring better teachers for the common branches, there are always some, who would attend to the languages, as preparatory to a public education, if they had opportunity. And if affording the opportunity to all of every town, should be the means of drawing out but few of superior talents, even those few are worthy of the highest consideration and regard from the public, who possess them. These and similar considerations, which I cannot here state, have convinced me, (I know not whether they will convince any one else,) that the repeal of the grammar school law, even if we could never hope it would be executed upon a more liberal construction, than it has been for the last ten years, will have a direct tendency to sink the condition and prospects of the primary schools.

As the Academies are not entirely free schools, we cannot calculate upon *them* to supply instruction to the mass of the people. These are most respectable establishments, and some of them are hardly inferior in the advantages, they afford for acquiring a thorough education, to some institutions, which are dignified with the name of colleges. It is not desirable, that their condition should be impaired. Nor need any fears be entertained, that their condition will be impaired. There are enough in the community, who duly estimate the advantages of a good education, and who are able to sustain the expense of these schools, to ensure their permanent support. And as the other classes of schools, which are free, are annihilated or decline in their character and condition, the academies will be encouraged by those, who can better appreciate the advantages of good schools, and better afford the necessary expense. So far as it regards the accommodation and pecuniary interest of the rich, and those of moderate property, it is matter of indifference, whether the legislature or the public make any appropriations or provisions for schools or not. They can and will take care for themselves. These are not the classes of the community to suffer, when government withhold encouragement from the schools. It is the poor, who are to suffer. They must educate their children in *free* schools, and in their own neighborhood, or not educate them at all. The expense of tuition, of books, and of board at the academies are so appalling, as to put the advantages of those schools quite beyond the power of a vast proportion of the community. In the towns where academies happen to be fixed, the poor will of course derive some increased advantages; but these towns are so few compared with the whole, and the incident expenses for books and tuition are so considerable, that for all purposes of di-

rectly and efficiently educating the whole mass of the people, the academies may be left out of calculation. For not one in twenty, if one in fifty, throughout the state, will ever find their way to any of them.

Qualifications of Teachers.

Much as all are disposed to attribute to the free schools, and zealously as some, and probably a majority of the community, would advocate a more liberal provision for them, it is very far from certain, that they produce all the good of which they are capable, even with their present means. Nay, it is certain they do not. And it is much to be lamented, that means *comparatively* ample, and afforded by a community so deeply interested in their appropriation, should be misapplied, or fail of their happiest effect. The sketch thus far given, relates merely to the provisions of government, and the external organisation of the system. And here, almost all notices of the subject, if it has been noticed at all, have rested. But, the internal organisation, including the government and instruction, will present quite as interesting a view of the subject. A few remarks, therefore, upon the defects of the schools, and suggestions for improvement, will appropriately follow.

Two principal causes have operated from the first establishment of the free schools, to impair and pervert their influence: Incompetent instructers, and bad school books. It is not a little surprising, that a public so deeply impressed with the importance of the system of schools, and so resolved to carry it into full operation, by liberal appropriations, should stop short of their purpose, and stop precisely at that point, where the greatest attention and vigilance were essential, to give efficacy to the whole. I do not mean that much good has not been realised; on the contrary, as has been repeatedly remarked, the success of the free school system is just cause of congratulation; but I mean, that their influence has not been the greatest and the best, which the *same means*, under better management, might produce.

The employment of incompetent and inexperienced instructers has probably arisen more from the peculiar situation of the country, than from any negligence or indifference on the subject. So many opportunities are open for industrious enterprise, that it has always been difficult to induce men to become *permanent* teachers. This evil, although a serious one, is one, which cannot at present be removed; but its bad effects may be more qualified, by raising the character and acquirements of instructers to a higher standard. The whole business of instruction, with very few exceptions, has hitherto been performed by those, who have felt little interest in the subject, beyond the immediate pecuniary compensation stipulated for their services. And even that has been too inconsider-

able, to render a want of success in the employment, a subject of much regret. This remark applies to almost all instructers from the primary schools up to the higher schools; and it has no very remote bearing even upon some of the instructers in our colleges. Three classes of men have furnished the whole body of instructers. 1st. Those who have undertaken to teach, who had no better reason for it, than that the employment is easier, and perhaps a little more profitable, than labor. No doubt many excellent instructers belong to this class. A college education is by no means essential to a good teacher of a primary school. But it must be confessed, that many of this class have been most lamentably deficient in those literary qualifications, which *are essential* to any instructer; and perhaps, still more deficient in their notions of decency and propriety, which never approach to refinement in manners. In the same degree, the schools may be made a most efficient instrument for improving and elevating the state of society when under the direction of men, who have themselves been properly taught, they may be the means of disseminating or perpetuating grossness in manners, and vulgarity, when under the direction of different characters.

2. A second class are those who are acquiring, or have attained a public education; and who assume the business of instruction as a temporary employment, either to afford a pecuniary emolument for the relief of immediate necessities, or to give themselves time to deliberate and choose some more agreeable and profitable profession. This is, probably, the most useful class of instructers; although their usefulness is much impaired by a want of experience and engagedness in the business. The thought that the employment is temporary, and that their ultimate success in life is not much affected by their success as teachers, cannot fail to weaken the motives to exertion, and discourage the sacrifices necessary to the successful teacher. The duties of the instructer are so arduous, under the most favorable circumstances, that he needs all the motives to perseverance, which exclusive devotion to the business, or self-interest can suggest. His prospects of happiness, and respectability in life, therefore, should be more identified with his success as a teacher.

3. The third class is composed of those, who from conscious weakness, despair of success in any other profession, or who have been more thoroughly convinced by unfortunate experiment, that they cannot attain distinction, perhaps even subsistence, by any other means. There may no doubt be found individuals among this class, who are respectable and useful instructers. But as a class, they are the most exceptionable of the three. To develope the powers of the human mind, in the most successful manner, re-

quires a discrimination and judgement, which, it seldom falls to the lot of men of indifferent talents, to possess. In the science of instruction, there is full scope for the best talents, and the largest acquirements. All the elevated qualities, either of mind or heart, which are necessary to ensure success in any of the professions, are essential to the accomplished instructer. And some qualities are required, which are not so important in any other profession. How can he hope to arrange and adapt the studies of a child, so as to call forth and strengthen the different powers of the mind, in their natural order, and in the most successful manner, who is not capable of enumerating those powers; much less of analysing them and understanding their mutual relations, and dependencies. Such, however, is the present condition of our country, so numerous are the demands for instructers in the primary and higher schools, and so various are the *private interests*, which will be felt in the selection of them, that it is, probably, too much to expect all to have the discrimination necessary, in order to become accurate and original observers of the phenomena of the youthful mind. But we have much to hope from those, who can better appreciate the importance of a correct system of instruction,—for the encouragement of individuals,—and the patronage of those large towns, which carry education to its greatest perfection. It is to these sources, we must look for the first examples in improvement.

There is no science, which is so difficult to be reduced to general principles, as that of education,—none where the faithful and patient induction of large experience is so essential. Although there undoubtedly are some general rules, to which the inexperienced instructer may be referred for direction, yet these are much fewer than is generally imagined. Every mind, especially in its early developement, presents exceptions and qualifications to almost every general rule, which can be adopted. So various and multiform are the phenomena of the youthful mind, so intimate the connexion, and so strong the mutual influence, of the powers of the mind, and the affections of the heart, and so fleeting and evanescent is the nature of the evidence, by which all these must be detected and classified, that he must be skilful, indeed, who presumes to offer any thing like a complete analysis. This is not now to be attempted. But from this view of the subject, it would seem, the skill of the instructer is evinced, much more in his ability to detect minute differences, and to call forth those tender and feeble powers, the evidence of which is so faint, as to admit a doubt of their very existence, than in his force to drive on the 'system of things,' which has been established for ages. It is as preposterous to reduce the infinite variety of young minds to precisely the same discipline, calculating upon the same result, as it would be, to hope to

make all men look alike by law; and it is as cruel as it would be to break their bodies, at once, to the bed of Procrustes. 'It is one thing to learn, and another to teach. It is very possible to possess vast stores of knowledge, and not be able to impart them, even to the willing and anxious pupil. To fix the volatile, to stimulate the sluggish, and overcome the obstinate, demand an acquaintance with the human mind not quite innate, nor likely to be acquired without some experience.'

IMPROVEMENT OF COMMON EDUCATION.

[The following paragraphs are extracted from Mr. Burnside's Address, from which an article was taken in our last number.]

The spirit of the age seems to me to call for an entire change in the manner of imparting knowledge to the infant mind; a change, better adapted to the order of nature, and more suited to the gradual expansion of the mental faculties. The method formerly adopted in all our literary institutions has been what is technically denominated the *analytic*.* It consists in requiring learners, first to acquire, artificially, abstract principles; and afterwards, in teaching them the particulars from which those principles were deduced. In the study of language, for instance, so soon as chil-

* It is a matter of regret that the terms *analytic* and *synthetic* are so often incorrectly, or at least vaguely, used. Some writers on education make use of these terms with reference to the business of the *teacher*, and some with reference to that of the *pupil;* whilst others apply it exclusively to the *method* of teaching or of learning. Much confusion and misapprehension accordingly result from this want of well defined phraseology. The method which has hitherto been most extensively adopted in instruction, employs both synthesis and analysis. Take the subject of English grammar, for example. In the department of etymology, the book and the teacher set out with the *synthetic* proposition. 'There are in English nine sorts of words;' and directly afterwards comes the *analysis* of this proposition, in the form of a succession of paragraphs, one of which is devoted to *each* of these nine sorts of words. The advocates of the inductive method would—and, we think, justly—invert this order, by first laying down each of the nine parts of speech, and then summing up the whole number in a general remark: they would, in a word, proceed from analysis to synthesis, and not from synthesis to analysis. As teachers, they would set out with analysis: hence their proneness to apply the term *analytic* to their own method of teaching, and *synthetic* to the opposite method. Again, persons, who in this affair occupy the place of spectators watching the developement of a process, rather than of active performers in the management of the business, naturally and properly incline to call this method *synthetic;* because it issues in a synthetic result, towards which it seemed gradually tending. Here then arises confu-

dren have charged their memories with the parts of speech, and before they are able to make any practical distinction between them, they are tasked to commit the rules of syntax, and immediately to apply them to the analysis of sentences. Now we could not state to them any propositions more abstract, more unmeaning and tedious. How extremely uninteresting and disgusting they are to children, is manifested by the vacant stare and the restless impatience for liberation of these little prisoners, when undergoing the drudgery of recitation.

The same method of instruction has been extended to all other branches of juvenile studies. The time is well recollected when lads could be introduced to the study of Latin, only by the use of grammars, altogether written in that language. It is really matter of surprise, that the absurdity of this manner of teaching has not been sooner exposed, and children relieved from the severe penance it has imposed. We all remember, how unwelcome to us, were the restraints and the exercises of school; and parents are still giving daily utterance to their complaints of the difficulty of reconciling their children to the requisitions of instructers. The reason of this may be found in the plan of instruction, and the severity of discipline, which its execution renders necessary. Children seldom submit to mere exercises of memory, without compulsion. But reverse the mode of communicating knowledge; proceed with them *synthetically;* that is, first present to the infant mind the objects, and the particulars, which naturally first arrest the attention, and they will save you almost the whole trouble of teaching them *rules.* They will form these with great facility for themselves, and every step of their progress will thus become natural, easy and delightful. Upon this plan, judiciously executed, the great aversion of children to their school, would give place to a fond desire for its advantages, and occasions for coercion to study would be heard of no more. Experiments upon this plan, are trying with triumphant success in our metropolis, in other parts of our country, and in England. Let us delay no longer to secure to the youth of our charge a paticipation of its benefits.

One other improvement, already alluded to, possesses strong claims upon public attention. It relates to the office of instructers.

sion: the teacher claims the credit of teaching analytically; while a critic perhaps is complimenting him on his success in teaching synthetically. There is, in fact, no absolute error on either side; and the whole matter would not be worth remarking, but for the hindrance to improvement which is always apt to result from a want of precision in the use of words. Perhaps it would be better to dispense with both of these scholastic terms of which we have been speaking, and to substitute the word *inductive,* as in all circumstances the proper term for designating that method of instruction which *proceeds from particulars to generals.* *Ed.*

Most of our schools are taught by those, who do not consider the duties of that station as their appropriate employment. They have no intention of making them the business of any considerable part of their lives. To occupy an interval of time, which might otherwise be vacant, or to enjoy opportunities for extending the circle of social intercourse, or to obtain pecuniary relief from immediate want is the only inducement to the undertaking. Hence it is, that instructers are perpetually changing, and schools are seldom taught more than four months by the same person. I need not attempt a description of the disadvantages, the embarrassments, the losses both of time and money, which are thus occasioned to the community. It is little less than *folly* to expect of instructers of this description, anything like an equivalent for the provision, which is annually made for the promotion of education. On this subject, we seem to disregard the prudent maxims, which usually govern us in other concerns. We are not satisfied with occasional religious instruction. We choose that our minister should dwell continually among us. We desire the full benefit of his experience, and intimate acquaintance with our condition: we justly consider that to be most useful he should be identified with all our interests, and endeared to us by the tender ties of father, companion, and friend. We employ the same physician in our families, because we value his long tried knowledge of our general health, and habits of life; and for similar reasons we commit our legal rights to the protection of the same counsel, who has given us repeated proofs of capacity and fidelity. Yet we, every few months, surrender our children, the objects of our tenderest regard, to the guidance and management of strangers; as if it were of no consequence to them, what is the experience, ability, or disposition of their instructers.

The only remedy for the evil, as I apprehend, is to make the superintendence of our children, a professional employment:—and surely no profession is more necessary or more honorable. Like all others, it comprises both a science and an art, which can be comprehended only by time, by patience, by industry, and experience. If there be any human pursuit, which requires a devotion of the whole of an active life to ensure the greatest success, it may well be doubted whether any one has paramount claims to that of training youth to knowledge, to virtue, and to practical usefulness. An Institution, therefore, especially calculated to prepare such individuals to enter on this profession, as should make choice of it to the exclusion of others, would be among the wisest acts of legislation, which has given dignity to our Commonwealth. In this enterprise, as in several others, our sister republic of New-York is pre-eminent. A seminary like that I have suggested has been recently recommended by her enlightened chief magistrate; and strong expecta-

tions are indulged of the sanction of the legislative authority.—Perhaps the proposition for an agricultural seminary, now under the consideration of our own legislature, may be so modified as to embrace also this great object.* Its accomplishment in *some way*, is distinctly called for by the wants of the public, and would reflect distinguished honor on the government, which should effect it.

We must not forget the greatness of the responsibility, which rests on us, as the descendants of the pilgrims.

We must not forget, that the cause of education is the cause of our children, of our country, of humanity; and that its interests are closely interwoven with all the dearest sympathies of the present life, and with our services and enjoyments in the future world.

ACCOUNT OF PUBLIC LIBRARIES.

[The subject of this article is so intimately connected with the improvement of education, that no apology can be deemed necessary for its introduction in our pages. There is perhaps no topic so important to public welfare, on which the public mind is so much in need of information. Many of the most liberal endowments in this department continue to be made at random, under the general impression of doing a good deed, without a definite reference to any branch of knowledge, or to the best means of achieving a given result in the way of promoting improvement.

It would be a circumstance most auspicious to the interests of literature and science, if men of wealth could be brought to perceive that ten or twenty thousand dollars devoted to the founding of a given department in a library, will confer an immeasurably greater benefit than the same sum bequeathed for the endowment of a professorship. In the one case, the means of instruction are furnished both to the students and their teachers; and in all probability, accomplished instructers will spring up in the midst of such advantages, and their own zeal and merit will insure their support; in the other case, a salary is held up as an object to be grasped at; but there is no assurance whatever afforded of the qualifications of him who shall succeed in obtaining the office. We speak

* Governor Lincoln's ideas on this subject have been already presented to our readers in an extract from his Message; and there are other favorable circumstances, of which it would be premature to speak at present; but which furnish room for well grounded expectations of the speedy establishment of a seminary for teachers in Massachusetts.

with no reference to individuals.—But where, we would ask, is there an institution, so fortunate as to be able to furnish any one of its professors with even the decent advantage of all the accessible English (not to say other) works in his own department of instruction?]

I.—Libraries in England.

The Library of the British Museum contains about 200,000 volumes. It was founded in 1755; and in 1757 King George transferred to it the Royal Library collected by his predecessors, from Henry VIII, consisting of 9,000 printed books, and about 2,000 manuscripts. In 1762 the late King purchased for it a collection of pamphlets, published from 1564 to 1660, consisting of 32,000 articles, contained in 2,000 volumes. His present Majesty has recently added to this collection the Royal Library, begun by George III, soon after his accession, including the purchase in 1762, of the Library of Mr. Joseph Smith, British Consul at Venice, for the sum of £10,000. From that time it has increased by the expenditure of about £2,000 per annum, exclusive of the many presents of books to the king; and amounting, when added to the Library of the Museum, to 65,000 volumes.

Trinity College, Cambridge. The Library contains about 90,000; the several departments are very complete, and the collection is extremely rare and valuable. No pains have been spared in the selection and arrangement. The books are disposed in thirty alcoves finished with carved oak, and ranged along the sides of the hall, with a bust in front of each. This invaluable collection, embracing the science and literature of every country and of every age, is accessible to all the students; graduates as well as undergraduates.

The University Library, Cambridge, contains about two hundred thousand volumes, and is constantly receiving accessions, consisting of new works of merit, and most of the periodicals of the day.

Bodleian Library, Oxford. This library is one of the richest and one of the most valuable collections in Europe. It was founded by Sir Thomas Bodley, ambassador to many European courts in the reign of Queen Elizabeth. It contains 400,000 printed books, and between 25,000 and 30,000 manuscripts. No books are allowed to be taken out, but every facility is afforded to those who wish to recur to them. The present income of the institution is about £3,000 sterling; and it receives, besides, a copy of every work printed in Great Britain. It lately purchased at Venice, a collection of valuable Greek, Latin and Hebrew manuscripts, amounting in number to 2,040, the cost of which, with the expense of transportation, will exceed £6,600 sterling. John Uri, a Hungarian, was employed for more than 25 years in preparing its catalogue.

II.—*Scotland.*

The Library of the University of Edinburgh consists of about 50,000 printed volumes, and a few manuscripts. The Advocate's Library in Edinburgh consists of about 80,000 printed works, and 1,000 volumes in manuscript. Its most copious subjects are the national history, Greek and Roman antiquities, and jurisprudence in general.

The University Library, Glasgow, contains about 30,000 volumes, besides which is the library of the late Dr. William Hunter, containing a choice collection of Greek and Latin books; many of which are of the earliest editions.

The Library of the University of St. Andrews contains about 36,000; and in the King's College at Aberdeen are 14,000.

III.—*Ireland.*

The Library of Trinity College, DUBLIN, contains about 50,000 classed books; besides about eleven hundred valuable manuscripts in Hebrew, Arabic, Persic, Greek, Latin, Irish, and English.

IV.—*Russia.*

The Library of the Imperial Academy of Sciences at Petersburgh contains 60,000 volumes.

The public Library of the Academy of Sciences which some time ago exceeded 40,000 volumes, was founded with 2,500 taken by Peter at the siege of Mittau. It contains numerous diplomatic papers of the reign of that Prince, and the most extensive collection of Chinese works in Europe, amounting to 2,800 different treatises of which there is an exact catalogue; some Japanese manuscripts; and several of the Mongols and Thibet.

V.—*Sweden.*

The Royal Library at STOCKHOLM, contains upwards of 25,000 printed books, and 5,000 manuscripts.

The Library of the University at UPSAL, is stated to comprise 50,000 books.

VI.—*Libraries in Germany.*

[From the *Ephemerides of* WEIMAR.]

VIENNA has eight public libraries, of which three only contain more than 438,000 volumes; viz. the Imperial Library, twenty years ago, contained 300,000 printed books, exclusive of 70,000 tracts and dissertations, and 15,000 manuscripts; the University Library, 108,000 volumes; and the Theresianum, 30,000. The number contained in the other five is not exactly known.

The Royal Library at MUNICH possesses 400,000 volumes; the Library at Göttingen, (one of the most select,) presents 230,000 volumes, 110,000 tracts and academical dissertations, and 5,000 manuscripts; DRESDEN, 250,000 printed books, 100,000 disserta-

tions, and 5,000 manuscripts; WOLFENBUTTEL, 109,000 printed books, chiefly ancient, 40,000 dissertations, and 4,000 manuscripts; STUTTGARD, 170,000 volumes, and 12,000 Bibles; BERLIN has seven public libraries, of which the Royal Library contains 160,000 volumes, and that of the Academy, 30,000; PRAGUE, 110,000 volumes; GRATZ, 105,000 volumes; FRANKFORT, on the Maine, 100,000 volumes; HAMBURGH, 100,000 volumes; BRESLAU, 100,000 volumes; WEIMAR, 95,000; MENTZ, 90,000; DARMSTADT, 85,000; CASSEL, 60,000; GOTHA, 60,000; MARBOURG, 55,000; MELL, in Austria, 35,000; HEIDELBERG, 30,000; WERNINGERODE, 30,000; NEWBURG, in Austria, 25,000; KREMSMUNSTER, 25,000; AUGSBURG, 24,000; MEININGEN, 24,000; NEW STRELITZ, 22,000; SALTSBOURG, 20,000; MAGDEBURGH, 20,000; HALLE, 20,000; LANDSHUT, 20,000.

Thus it appears that thirty cities in Germany possess, in their public libraries, greatly beyond three millions, either of works or printed volumes, without taking into account the academical dissertations, detached memoirs, pamphlets, or the manuscripts. It is to be observed, likewise, that these numbers are taken at the very lowest estimate.

VII.—*Poland.*

The King's library at Warsaw, contains about 25,000 volumes, most of which are modern. The university of Cracow has a library, in which are 4000 manuscripts. A valuable and extensive collection of books called the library of the republic, or Zaluski Library, was formed and devoted to the public by two brothers of that name in 1745: but no funds were appropriated, either for its enlargement or suitable preservation. Originally, it consisted of 300,000 volumes, comprising 52,000 duplicates; from the sale of the duplicates, and from other circumstances, the collection was supposed, in 1791, not to exceed 200,000 volumes, while its value was not proportioned to its size. Having suffered many depredations, it was at length sent by General Suwarrow to St. Petersburg in 1795, where it was deposited in three elegant apartments, and opened for the use of the public in 1812.

VIII.—*Libraries in France.*

[From *Recherches sur les Bibliotheques anciennes et modernes*, par M. Petit Radel.]

In PARIS there are five public libraries, besides almost forty special ones. The royal library contains about 450,000 volumes of printed books, besides nearly an equal number of tracts collected into volumes, and about 80,000 manuscripts. The library of the arsenal, about 150,000 volumes, and 5,000 manuscripts; the library of St. Genevieve, about 110,000 volumes, and 2,000 manuscripts; the magazine library, about 92,000 volumes, and 3,137 manuscripts; and the city library, about 20,000 volumes.

In the Provinces, the most considerable are those of LYONS, 106,000; BOURDEAUX, 105,000; AIX, 72,670; BESANCON, 53,000; TOULOUSE, (two) 50,000; GRENOBLE, 42,000; TOURS, 30,000; METZ, 31,000; ARRAS, 34,000; LEMANS, 41,000; COLMAR, 30,000; VERSAILLES, 40,000; AMIENS, 40,000.

The total number of these libraries in France amounts to 273; of above 80, the quantity of volumes they contain is not known. From the data given, in this work, it appears that the general total of those which are known amounts to 3,345,287 volumes; of which there are 1,125,347 in Paris alone.

IX.—*Denmark.*

The Royal Library at COPENHAGEN is computed to contain between 3 and 400,000 printed books, and many volumes of manuscripts. At the sale of the fine library of Count Otto Thot, amounting to 116,395 volumes, exclusive of pamphlets, manuscripts and *incunabula*, the Royal library obtained an accession of 50,000 volumes; and the Count, by his will, had bequeathed to it 4,154 manuscripts, with his valuable collection of 6,159 works that had been printed before the year 1530. In 1799 the Danish government bought up the library of Luxdorf, rich in classical works and in manuscripts, and it was annexed to the Royal library. It afterwards received valuable acquisitions at the sale of the libraries of Oeder, Holmskiold, Rottboll, Ancher; and others, in 1789, 90, 91, 93, 94, and 98. In 1796 an accession was made of the immense library of Suhm, the historian. He had collected in the course of fifty years, 100,000 volumes, which he left to the disposition of the public. A little before his death he presented them to the Royal Library.

X.—*Switzerland.*

The public library at ZURICH contains 25,000 volumes, and some curious manuscripts.

XI.—*Spain.*

The Royal library at Madrid founded by Philip V. in 1712, and enlarged by the succeeding monarchs, now consists of more than 200,000 volumes, besides a great number of valuable Arabic manuscripts. The library is open to the public, at stated hours, every day in the week.—The library of San Isidro, containing 60,000 volumes, is open to the public every day except holydays. The library of San Fernando is open to the public three days in a week.

The library of the Escurial is computed to contain about 130,000 printed volumes, and 4,300 manuscripts; of these latter 567 are Greek, 67 Hebrew, and 1300 Arabic.

XII.—*Italy.*

The Vatican Library at Rome, was founded by Nicholas IV. who was elected to the papal chair in 1477. He supplied it with

many manuscripts from Greece. Sixtus V. spared no pains on its embellishment; nor was it neglected by any of the Popes down to Pius VI. Some of its most valuable acquisitions came from the collection of the Elector Palantine, which was taken in 1662 by the duke of Bavaria, who presented it to Urban VIII. Queen Christina of Sweden also had collected 1900 manuscripts, which, on her decease descended to the chief of the Ottoboni family, afterwards Pope Alexander VIII. who deposited them in the Vatican. The exact number of books found here is not known, as there is no printed catalogue of the Library: it is generally estimated that there are 400,000 printed volumes, and 50,000 manuscripts; among the latter are some of great antiquity. The library is contained in a gallery 214 feet long, and 48 broad, and in other apartments, superbly decorated by the hands of eminent painters. This library is divided into three portions, one is public, whither all men resort on two days of the week; another of more difficult access; and into the third none are admitted but by special privilege.

There are several other extensive libraries in the city; that of the Barberini contains 60,000 printed volumes, and several thousand manuscripts. The Colonna Library, distinguished by about 400 volumes of books and engravings of the fifteenth century; and the Library of the Roman College, wherein are contained the library and museum of the celebrated Kircher.

The Medicean Library at Florence is deposited in a spacious edifice, designed by Michael Angelo. It consists of above 90,000 printed volumes, and 3,000 valuable manuscripts. The latter have been described in a catalogue of eleven folio volumes, by Assemanni, Biscioni, and Bandini; and 3,000 volumes printed in the fifteenth century, are also described in two folio volumes.

There are libraries at Bologna, Milan, Mantua, Pisa and Venice, of which our limits prevent our giving an account.

SUGGESTIONS TO PARENTS.

Early Intellectual Education.

[The following article is extracted from the Christian Monitor, published at Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, and edited by J. M. Keagy, M. D. a gentleman who is extensively known as a zealous friend to the improvement of education. The Monitor is one of those papers we have mentioned as containing a distinct department for the sub-

ject of education. Of the respectable manner in which this part of Dr. Keagy's labors is sustained the subsequent paragraphs are a fair specimen.]

The usual plan of teaching to read without thought, has its origin in the use of the *spelling book;* and *this is the greatest barrier now existing to intellectual improvement.* 'The great reason,' as a sensible, though sarcastic writer observes, 'why men in general are so ignorant, is, that they were taught by this mechanical method,'—a method, we would add, which, like the destructive mildew, has blasted the unfolding germs of many a rising genius.

A question of the following kind may now be started, 'If the spelling book be given up, what is then to be done?' The answer is simply this, that a method of teaching should be introduced, which, possessing none of the disadvantages animadverted on, includes in itself the means of improving all the faculties of the human understanding. The outlines of such a method we shall make a feeble effort to pourtray.

Domestic or preparatory education should as before stated, be conducted by *oral* instruction. The innocent inmate of the nursery should not be harrassed with a horn book, by which to learn his alphabet. Rather let his attention be fixed on objects that meet his senses: let him be taught the sensible properties of things that engage his attention. This will give him an intellectual hold on the surrounding universe; and his mind, by employing the lever of language will daily gain new strength. Let him be taught the names of all the parts of an individual object, and as much as possible its history and the uses to which it may be applied.

But his knowledge should, for some time, be confined chiefly to notices derived directly through his sensations, which may be denominated positive knowledge; and let his knowledge of relations as well as abstract ideas be left untouched until he shall be able to apprehend them. The reason why relative knowledge should be left to succeed positive, is that the former is dependent on the latter; for the knowledge of relations cannot be acquired until the knowledge of objects is familiar. Besides, a knowledge of the sensible properties of things may be acquired as readily at the age of five years as at any future period.

By pursuing a course of this kind, a child would possess qualifications for entering school at the age of six or seven years, of a very different character from what we generally meet with. He would have been taught to *think*, and to bind his volatile ideas to appropriate words. His subsequent progress would be rapid and agreeable.

Such a method is not so difficult to put into effectual operation

as some may think; for it could be pursued by any mother of good common sense. There is no need of going far for subjects. A chair, or a table, a peach, or an apple, a cup or a saucer, a bean, or a pebble, would form ample subjects to interest and instruct a child of four years of age.

When we reflect on the condition of women and their relation to society, we cannot help perceiving the immense influence they possess and exert in all civilised nations. 'Men make laws, but women make manners,' has long ago become an adage; and if it is true that laws are ineffectual, where the manners and customs of a people are opposed to them, we shall see the high value we should set on female education. We feel no hesitation in hazarding the opinion, that of all human beings, the female sex ought to be the best educated. This would secure the morals of society, and ensure a race of enlightened and virtuous citizens.

The first years of children are spent under the eye and in the company of their mother. Boys, until they are ten or twelve years old, and girls, until they marry, may be said to be under the management of their mother. How necessary is it therefore that the minds of women should be well cultivated; especially when we recollect that early impressions and habits, whether moral or intellectual are hardly ever effaced! If mothers are wise and prudent, their children will in general be the same. It has been remarked by persons of the greatest observation, that most men who have been eminent for learning and piety have owed the germs of that eminence to their mothers. *Men* are but *children* of a *larger growth;* and our dispositions and habits in after life are nothing more than the developement of those principles which were imbibed during our tender years. How important that these should be correct! With these observations as general points, we will notice some of the branches of study that might employ the attention of females.

An accurate knowledge of their own language, ought to be an object of primary attention in the instruction of females. By this we are far from meaning the mere *mechanical* knowledge of the principles of grammar and their application, but a *thorough* knowledge of English words, and a critical acquaintance with the shades of difference in the signification of our synonymous terms. To this should be added the ability, from frequent exercise, of expressing themselves well in written composition. They should also be well acquainted with the principles of arithmetic on Colburn's simple and excellent plan. This would enable them to teach their children, with very little trouble, all the principal doctrines of numbers.

Natural history, in its most extensive sense, will form a very useful and instructive branch of female study. Geography and general

history are also very necessary. Natural philosophy and chemistry should claim a share of attention: they would furnish many subjects of reflection, and cultivate the reasoning powers. But, above all, the doctrines of morals, as examined in works on natural theology and moral philosophy, and displayed in the sacred scriptures, should constitute the points of the most careful investigation. With these should be connected the evidences of the truth of the christian religion.

With regard to geometry and practical mathematics, we think, young ladies ought *at least* to be *well* acquainted with Euclid's elements and arithmetic. They should study Euclid's elements, not as some might suppose, for the purpose of ostentation; but for the same reason that Locke would have young gentlemen to study them, namely 'for the purpose of making them rational beings.'— No person ever went through Euclid understandingly, who did not become a better reasoner by it. We would therefore give a young lady a knowledge of geometry, because it will be useful to her, though nobody should ever know her to be a mathematician.

Let us now examine some of the uses to which women could apply such a stock of acquirements as the preceding. Omitting the mention of the numerous benefits derived to themselves from the possession of a well cultivated mind, we would notice more particularly the advantages that society would derive from them.

A proper plan of domestic education might then be instituted and put into practice. Children could be taught by their mothers at the rate of one or two hours a day, *twice as much* as they learn at our common schools. The demoralising influence of associating with the promiscuous groups of our common schools, might thus be obviated.

This is an evil which has been observed by most parents that are solicitous for the welfare of their children. Here the innocent and the good are mixed with those who are already acquainted with the vices of the world. The spelling and other books used at school can afford them little or no entertainment, because they are not understood. The conversation of their play-mates becomes, therefore, the centre of attraction, to which all their feelings tend. And this conversation is not of a cast that will improve their morals or their understanding. The word that dismisses school, is the most grateful sound that meets the scholar's ears; and the call to their books is disagreeable to all, and so disgusting to some, that they will even risk the consequences of playing truant, to avoid learning what they do *not understand* and what consequently *cannot interest* them. If their books were understood by them, reading would, in most instances, be preferred to bad company. But on the present mode of learning nothing but words without

meanings, it is scarcely possible for a child to love to go to school. Indeed, we might very reasonably express our wonder if we saw it otherwise. Hence it also happens, that, to command attention, teachers must have recourse to many modes of punishment which might have been prevented, by avoiding the cause.

Should female education once be put upon a liberal footing, the whole face of society would be greatly changed for the better in the course of the next fifty years. Women would then delight in 'teaching the young idea how to shoot;' and the expense of most of our common schools might be saved. Our ladies would then be capable at a small expenditure of time to qualify their sons for the lower classes of our academies and colleges, and to give to their daughters all the qualifications requisite for making them as useful in their turn as their mothers have been.

[In connection with the subject of this article we would invite the attention of mothers to a *very few* books in the department of elementary instruction. We do not mention the following works as perfect, but as highly improved vehicles of maternal tuition which every mother ought to use and which every mother *can* use.

The first book we would name is the Child's Arithmetic, by Mr. William B. Fowle: it embraces all that is valuable in the systems of Pestalozzi and Colburn, adapted to the infant mind. In geography, we would recommend Mrs. Willard's admirable little volume; and in reading, Worcester's Primer, a book which, we think, will teach a child by a very simple, and natural, and entertaining method, and with a very great economy of time and labor, to both mother and child.* These books will be found very useful, not only in their respective places, but with reference to the whole business of parental education: they will lead parents to pursue a similar course in all other branches, and will secure the full benefit of explanatory and inductive instruction.]

* This excellent little volume is not yet entirely through the press; but our opinion of it is founded on a careful perusal of the manuscript, and of the greater part of the work in its printed form.

REVIEW.

POPULAR EDUCATION.

1 —*Letters to the Hon. William Prescott, L L. D. on the Free Schools of New England, with remarks upon the principles of instruction.* By JAMES G. CARTER. Boston, 1824. 8vo. pp. 124.

2.—*Essays upon Popular Education; containing a particular examination of the Schools of Massachusetts, and an outline of an Institution for the Education of Teachers.* [First published in the Boston Patriot; in the winter of 1824—5.] By JAMES G. CARTER. Boston, 1826. 8vo. pp. 40.

3.—*Plan of a Seminary for the Education of Instructers of Youth.* By THOMAS H. GALLAUDET. Boston, 1825. 8vo. pp. 39.

4.—*Observations on the Improvement of Seminaries of Learning in the United States; with suggestions for its accomplishment.* By WALTER R. JOHNSON. Philadelphia, 1825. 8vo. pp. 28.

5.—*The United States Literary Gazette, Vol.* III, *Nos. 5 and* 6. Boston, 1825. 8vo. pp. 80.

6.—*Message of* Gov. LINCOLN *to the Legislature of Massachusetts at their winter session.* 1826.

7.—*Message of* Gov. CLINTON *to the Legislature of New York, at their winter session,* 1826.

8.—*Report of the Commissioners, appointed by a resolve of the Legislature of Massachusetts, passed on the 22d Feb.* 1825. Boston, 1826. 8vo. pp. 55.

9.—*An Act, further to provide for the instruction of youth in Massachusetts, passed March,* 1826.

10.—*Remarks on the School Law of the last session of the Legislature, and information concerning the Common Schools of Massachusetts, New York, South Carolina, &c. &c.* Philadelphia, 1826. 8vo. pp. 38.

11.—*Message of* Gov. LINCOLN, *to the Legislature of Massachusetts at their spring session in* 1826.

12.—*An Address delivered before the Alumni of Columbia College, on the third day of May,* 1826, *in the Hall of the College.* By WILLIAM BARD, A. B. New York, 1826. 8vo. pp. 36.

13.—*The United States Literary Gazette, Vol.* IV, *No.* 4. Boston, 1826. 8vo. pp. 40.

14.—*Abstract of Returns from the School Committees of several towns in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts.* [Printed by order of the General Court.] Boston, 1826. Folio.

15.—*Practical Observations on Popular Education.* By H. Brougham Esq. M. P. F. R. S. [From the twentieth London Edition.] Boston, 1826. 8vo. pp. 36.

We have collected with some diligence these pamphlets and documents upon popular education, and arranged them, we believe, according to the order of time in which they were first published in the different parts of our country. We thought that we should do well to copy their titles, at length, in order to show the great and growing importance, which the subject of them assumes at the present time; and also to indicate to our readers the sources from which we have derived many of our facts and reflections. If others have a desire to survey the ground which we have now surveyed, they will find in the above list of books and papers, a directory that it might have cost them some labor to form for themselves.

With the pamphlet which we have placed at the head of our list, the public are already pretty well acquainted, as it has been some time published, and many of the conductors of our journals, ourselves among the number, have drawn quite copiously from its pages. It contains much that is suited to the purposes of our work, and as we shall probably have occasion to recur to it, again, in another department, we shall at present forbear further remarks upon its character and its tendency. The second and third in order, were, as we learn, originally published in numbers almost simultaneously; the former in a newspaper of this city, with the signature of 'Franklin,' and the latter in one printed at Hartford, Connecticut, with the signature of 'A Father.' We are glad to perceive that their several authors have, at length, been induced to collect their numbers and embody them in pamphlets for safer preservation and wider circulation. Though evidently written, as newspaper essays are usually written, without much care or attention, to precision or niceness of phraseology, they nevertheless contain many facts and reasonings, which cannot fail to be of practical utility to those engaged in digesting any system of public instruction in this country. The former of these productions contains a pretty full account of the different classes of schools in Massachusetts and of their reciprocal influence upon each other. The latter suggests many valuable ideas upon the subject of education generally. And both of them, as well as those marked 4, 5, and 8, in our catalogue, all proceed-

ing from different quarters of our country, strongly state the necessity of some direct and efficient preparation of the candidates for the profession of teaching. The same subject has been repeatedly and strenuously urged upon the attention of the Legislatures of Massachusetts and New York, in parts of the messages of Gov. Lincoln and Gov. Clinton above cited. As we shall recur to this topic again, before we close these remarks, we pass on now to give a brief account of the remaining part of our list.

The documents marked 9 and 14, comprehend the *doings* of the State of Massachusetts in regard to popular education for the last two years. The former we have already printed at length. [See No. 4.] One of the objects of this act was to collect information touching the number, character, and condition of the schools throughout the Commonwealth. The latter document orms a part, and we are sorry to perceive, a very imperfect part, of the system of returns from the school committees contemplated in the law above alluded to. When the law has been carried fully into effect, and the returns, of which this abstract is only a specimen, are made complete, they will enable legislators hereafter to possess themselves of a better knowledge of the subject of popular education in this state, and consequently to act with greater energy and precision. The pamphlets numbered 10 and 13, relate to the means of education in Pennsylvania. The former presses the subject upon the attention of the Legislature, and urges the necessity of a more equal and extended system of common schools than now prevails there, and quotes as examples of better systems those of Massachusetts, New York, and South Carolina; the latter contains a brief history of the legislative provisions for popular education in that ancient, rich and respectable Commonwealth, from its first foundation down to the present time.

The object of the author of the address marked 12, in our list was to impress upon his hearers the vital importance to our government of a well educated yeomanry. And although we do not coincide with him in opinion on all points as to the best means of securing and perpetuating an enlightened body of cultivators of the soil, we think many of his remarks are exceedingly judicious and practical. Mr. Bard thinks that some education for those who have actually become paupers should be provided for by the state or the public; but that all others should be left to take care of themselves in their own way. He argues that it is obviously for the interest and happiness of all to provide a good education for their families; and that men,—hard laboring men, as well as others,—should be left to buy their own instruction and that of their families, as they buy the other comforts or luxuries of life. But it appears to us that Mr. Bard

supposes men to be much more sharp-sighted in discerning their true interest in this respect than they really are. The history of all nations, and our own among the rest, goes to show that there must always be a large body of laborers in every community, whose best efforts will hardly provide for the animal wants of themselves and their families. These wants are the most clamorous, and must always be first supplied. With a few exceptions, not enough to effect the rule, those who depend wholly upon manual labor for their subsistence, become soon in a degree insensible to intellectual enjoyment. And if, after supplying the things necessary to the bodily comfort of themselves and those dependent upon them, a penny be left, they will generally, with the lassitude which their constant employment induces, forget to look forward a generation or two for an object to expend it upon. But they will lay it out forthwith for that which will produce a quicker return of excitement or of happiness. We believe that in proportion as the human mind is developed, it enjoys intellectual exercise and comes to look for its principal happiness in that enjoyment. So also in proportion as the mind is rude and uncultivated, it reluctsat intellectual exercise, and requires stronger allurements to induce an effort. And how can one be expected to make the exertions and sacrifices necessary to educate a family, who is himself utterly incapable of appreciating an education? Moreover, we believe that this subject—the legal provision for the education of *all* children and youth—has a most important bearing upon the interests and prospects of this country; and we would fain press it upon the attention of those who rule over us. The statistics of all nations show that the more ignorant and degraded any particular class are, whether they happen to be mechanics, manufacturers, or agriculturists; the faster they multiply, if the means of subsistence are possibly within their reach; and consequently the more dangerous they become to the peace of the state. It behoves rulers, therefore, and especially rulers in a free government like our own, to look to it betimes that no class be allowed to remain uninstructed. For if but a small part only of one generation be suffered to become men in physical strength, without something like a corresponding developement of their minds and hearts; there is a noxious weed rooted in the vineyard of the republic, which will grow and spread in every direction till it cannot be eradicated.

But it is perhaps more than time to return from this digression and give an account of the remaining pamphlet numbered 15, and the last on the long list at the head of this article. These 'practical observations' of Mr. Brougham were first published in the Edinburgh Review. They were afterwards revised and enlarged by their author, and printed in a separate pamphlet. Twenty editions have

been circulated in England, and it is now reprinted here. We shall be disappointed if our public do not quickly take up one edition. It is—as we should expect from its distinguished and philanthropic author—full of the most judicious and practical remarks upon popular education in England. Many of the suggestions, however, are equally applicable to the condition of this country; and we hope that those interested in the subject will make all possible despatch to possess themselves of the 'Observations,' and profit by the wisdom, which they are calculated to impart.

Having thus taken a brief, and we are sensible a very imperfect view of the general subject brought before us in this great collection of pamphlets and documents, and having noticed the topics to which many of them are devoted, it remains for us to dwell for a moment upon that branch of the subject to which they all seem to tend, and to which several of them particularly and exclusively relate,—the establishment of an institution for the education of teachers. This seems to us to be the great *desideratum* in our system of popular education; and to this object public attention should be first turned as a preliminary step to other improvements. Upon the necessity of more skilful and scientific instructers for the great mass of the people throughout the country, and the important consequences that would result from such a class of men organised into a distinct profession, we offer the following remarks from a late number of the United States Literary Gazette, one of the pamphlets now before us.

'A more energetic system of public instruction, and as a branch of such a system, more skilful teachers have long been needed; and, moreover, the whole community are beginning to be sensible of it. It has become a public want; and unless the ordinary laws of nature are suspended or reversed in this case, the supply will in due time be forthcoming by some means and from some quarter. In order to give the public more skilful teachers, the science of education must be made the ground of a more distinct profession. And why should it not be so? While the number of inhabitants in the United States is doubling once in twenty-five years, and especially while so small a part of this vast increase is by immigration, a large proportion of the whole population must be of that age, when the chief concern in regard to them should be to prepare them for the successful discharge of their duties as members of a civilised society and as citizens of a free government. We cannot speak with confidence in regard to the southern and western sections of our country; but in New England and in some of the Middle States, it is a moderate estimate, and probably much below the truth, to state that four persons are on an average employed in the instruction of youth to one in preaching the gospel, and that exclusive of all domestic and private instruction. The number of public teachers, therefore, male and female, employed, on an average will probably be found nearly equal to that of all the other professions.

When we estimate in this connexion the influence of early education upon the future character, it seems to us that the view of the subject must arrest the attention not only of those who would promote our greatest moral and intellectual improvement, but of those whose duty it is to provide for the permanence and stability of our political institutions.

It may be new to some of our readers to hear the subject of education spoken of as a science. And we must confess that we apply the term to it, rather in consideration of what it should be, than of what it really is, or is understood to be even by some who have paid most attention to it. But is it incredible, or even improbable, that a new science may yet be disclosed? The searching spirit which has gone forth, has developed within a few years several new sciences, which before were almost unknown; or were made up of a few scattered facts, and those not systematically arranged or reduced to any general principles. Among these we might name chemistry, geology, and political economy. These are all sciences which are found to have important bearings upon the interests of society, and all sciences which now engross a liberal share of the public attention. And even these may be again subdivided, and others spring out of them, which do not now exist even in the imagination of men.

So we believe it will be with education as a branch of moral and intellectual philosophy. There is a whole science wrapped up in that mysterious little thing, the infant mind, which has never been developed;—a science, too, which will have a stronger influence upon the condition and prospects of men than any other. We say stronger, because it relates to that part of ourselves, which is susceptible of the highest, perhaps of indefinite improvement, at a period in our lives when every bias is soonest and most permanently felt; and because it has for its object to call forth in their natural order, and put in healthy and vigorous action, all those intellectual powers, that constitute the very instruments with which we must proceed to accomplish whatever is within the reach of man.

Moral philosophy has been studied, reduced to principles, and inculcated in all systems of public instruction; but it only teaches *men* their duty and the reasons of it. We have a moral nature and moral feelings, which are susceptible of influence, developement, and direction, by a series of means, before we can reason upon them ourselves. This is the field for the moral philosophy of education. It opens almost with our existence, and extends through all the stages of childhood and youth, till our intellectual faculties are so far developed as to enable us to excite, suppress, and control our feelings and regulate our actions with reference to distant motives. Then we may begin to *study* moral philosophy; before that time, we must act from motives, placed before us by those who control our education, without being able to comprehend the ultimate tendency or the reason of our actions. And his moral education is most perfect, whose feelings and habits are so formed, that he needs not to change them, when his reason comes to decide upon their fitness with reference to his being's end and aim. The skill of the instructer, therefore, in this depart-

ment of education, consists in comprehending the temperament and disposition of his pupil, and in addressing those motives only to him, which will induce such actions as he approves, and lead to the formation of such habits as he wishes to establish. If this view of the subject be correct, we think it must occur to every one, that there are several stages in the developement of our moral nature, and the formation of our moral character, which have never been subjected to a sufficiently minute and strict analysis. General principles in the moral education of youth must be established like all other general principles, by a regular process of induction. And in order to this, a great variety of particular cases must occur, and a great many discriminating observations must be made; or in other words, we must have at hand large experience either of our own, or of those upon whose observations we may safely rely. With sufficient materials for philosophy, or the facts of the case, we know not why we may not establish general principles upon this subject as well as upon any other of a similar nature. And when they are so established they must be of incalculable utility to those of slight experience in the management and government of youth; and such there must always be, while men attain only to three score and ten.

Metaphysicians have analysed the human mind often enough, and, perhaps, minutely enough; but it has been the mind in a state of maturity. This class of philosophers always open their subject, and vindicate its claims to extraordinary dignity, by saying that the materials to be analysed, and the instruments to be employed upon them, are all within themselves. So indeed they are. And for that very reason they describe only those faculties and those operations, of which no one can be conscious, whose mind is not yet in the same advanced stage of developement. But there is a series of years, and important years, in our education, of the intellectual operations peculiar to which, we can in manhood have no recollection, and of which we can form no adequate conceptions by reference to the operations of a mature mind under similar circumstances. Neither can children, at the early age of which we speak, describe the operations of their own minds so as to throw much light upon the subject. Whatever we learn, therefore, of their intellectual habits we must learn by means very different from those we employ afterwards, when their minds can take cognisance of their own operations and describe them intelligibly to others. Here then, although the instruments of observation, to use the language of metaphysicians, are within the philosopher, the subject upon which they are to be employed, or the materials to be analysed, are not. And this important circumstance constitutes a difference between the subject of metaphysics as it has usually been understood and defined, and the new branch of it, which, we contend, is about to be developed. We suppose nature proceeds by uniform laws in the developement of the mind as well as in every thing else. What then are these laws, and how shall we trace them? These seem to our mind to be questions of the deepest interest to mankind, although they are not very easily answered. The analogy

between the processes carried on in the infant and a mature mind, as we have before intimated, is not so close as to afford us much assistance. And the child itself cannot give us much aid, because it cannot comprehend our purposes in subjecting it to an examination; and if it could, it has not yet any language for expressing to us its intellectual states or processes. Though the infant mind is ever active in itself, it is passive in regard to our object. Although it is constantly manifesting new phenomena, it cannot direct or aid us in the observation or classification of them; so as to form a general or uniform law, by which we might predict what phenomena would follow given circumstances. We are upon a level far above it, and must look down upon its shadowy, complicated, and varying operations, as we look down upon a map, whose shades and lines are almost too minute to be traced by our blunted sight. We must observe and arrange by our own ingenuity the circumstances which excite it, and trace its operations or rather the results of its operations when it is excited; somewhat as we observe phenomena and trace laws in chemistry, by noticing the results of given combinations of elements, when we cannot see the operation going on or comprehend the mode of it.

We hold, and have held for many years, undoubting belief that the science of education is capable of being reduced, like other sciences, to general principles. By a particular induction, or a long series of discriminating observations, the infant mind may be so far analysed or its phenomena classed, as to enable us not only to define accurately its several powers with their mutual connexions and dependencies, but to fix with precision the natural order of their developement, and to adapt to them such exercises as will develope them most successfully. It might perhaps seem presumption to call in question the axioms of the science; and it certainly would not be easy to point out in a few words the false principles which lie at the foundation of our systems of instruction. Moreover we should not lightly undertake to calculate the perplexity, and time, and perversion of talents they cost the young,—the waste of money they cost parents and the public,—and the waste of patient and laborious effort they cost instructers. We shall name only two false principles, which seem to us to lie at the root of the matter, believing that if they could be reformed the whole subject would assume a new aspect.

1. Education is understood to consist in the acquisition of knowledge. This we infer from the pompous catalogues of books and subjects, which are arrayed and set forth as constituting the course of every petty school in the land. They are subjects, oftentimes, for which the youthful mind is not at all prepared, and by which of course it must be baffled and discouraged. When a subject is presented to a pupil, which requires the exercise of an intellectual faculty not yet developed, he must be as much confused as a blind man would be, if called upon to criticise colors. Education, we believe, at least elementary education, does *not* consist in the acquisition of knowledge, but, as its etymology implies, in the developement of the mind. And subjects should be selected and arranged with reference to this object, the acquisition of knowledge being only incidental.

2. When the subjects are selected, perhaps judiciously, they are presented in a form, which neither affords a salutary discipline to the mind, nor facilitates the acquisition of knowledge. They are all too abstract, or are generalisations of facts which are themselves unknown to the pupil. Particularly, the whole courses of the physical and exact sciences, to use a common but expressive phrase, come precisely the wrong end foremost;—first the general principle, then the particular instances illustrating it. Lord Bacon has taught us that this is not the method by which the human mind takes in knowledge, and it is time we had attended to his instructions. Upon all new subjects of which we have no knowledge or experience, we must, *first*, have the particular cases, instances, or facts, abstracting the qualities or points of resemblance common to them all; then a description of those qualities or points of resemblance, which constitutes a general principle. We have no room to enlarge upon these topics, but believe they will be found to reach the evils and defects, which have been so long and so severely felt. For if the purpose of early education be the developement and discipline of the mind; then all subjects must be selected and arranged with reference to this purpose. And if Lord Bacon's philosophy is sound; then the subjects so selected and arranged must be put in that form, in which alone the mind can successfully encounter them.'

The renovating influence, which a class of judicious teachers, well skilled in their profession, would have upon our systems of instruction, especially upon the free schools, and consequently upon the whole community; and the necessity of some direct preparation for their employment, as the only practicable means by which their character may be elevated and their influence made the greatest and the best, are thus stated by Mr. Carter in his 'Essays upon popular Education,' just republished in this city.

'The character of the schools, and of course their political, moral, and religious influence upon the community, depend almost solely upon the character of the teachers. Their influence is strong or weak, just in proportion as the instructers are skilful or ignorant—energetic or feeble: it is in this direction or that direction, just as they are imbued with one or another principle. So that whatever is done to elevate the character of the teachers, elevates at the same time, and in the same degree, the character of the schools which they teach, and enlarges and strengthens their influence upon the community. And whatever is done or suffered to lower the character of teachers, must sink, at the same time and in the same degree, the character of the schools, and destroy or prevent their influence upon society. I am aware that many other considerations must be taken into account in organising a perfect and an energetic system of public instruction. * * * * But all of them, though important, are subsequent in their nature to the preparation of teachers. And none can be attempted with a reasonable expectation of accomplishing them to the greatest advantage, till good teachers are provided and ready for the work.

* * * * It would be beginning wrong, to build houses, and tell your young and inexperienced instructers to teach this or teach that subject, however desirable a knowledge of such subjects might be, while it is obvious that they cannot know how, properly, to teach any subject. The *science of teaching*, for it must be made a science, is first in the order of nature. And it is to this point that attention must first be applied, in order to effect any essential improvement.'

'And here let me remark upon a distinction in the qualifications of teachers, which has never been practically made; though it seems astonishing that it has so long escaped notice. I allude to the distinction between the possession of knowledge and the ability to communicate it to other minds. When we are looking for a teacher, we inquire how much he *knows*, not how much he can *communicate;* as if the latter were of no consequence. Now it seems to me that parents and children, to say the least, are quite as much interested in the latter qualification of their instructer, as in the former. Though a teacher cannot communicate more knowledge than he possesses; yet he may possess much and still be able to impart but little. And the knowledge of Sir Isaac Newton would be of but trifling use to a school, while it was locked up safely in the head of a country schoolmaster. So far as the object of a school or of instruction, therefore, is the acquisition of knowledge, novel as the opinion may seem, it does appear to me, that both parents and pupils are quite as much interested in the part of their teacher's knowledge which they will be likely to get, as the part which they certainly cannot get.'

'One great object which it is so desirable on every account to attain, is, to establish a language of communication between the instructer and his pupil, and enable the former to open his head and his heart, and infuse into the other some of the thoughts and feelings, which lie hid there. *Instructers and pupils do not understand each other.* They do not speak the same language. They may use the same words; but this can hardly be called the same language, while they attach to them such very different meanings. We must either by some magic or supernatural power, bring children at once to comprehend all our abstract and difficult terms; or *our teachers* must unlearn themselves, and come down to the comprehension of children. One of these alternatives is only *difficult*, while the other is *impossible*. The direct preparation of instructers for the profession of teaching must surmount this difficulty; and I know of no other way in which it can be surmounted. When instructers understand their profession; that is, when they understand the philosophy of the infant mind, what powers are earliest developed and what studies are best adapted to their developement; then it will be time to lay out and subdivide their work into an energetic system of public instruction. Till this first step towards a reform, which is preliminary in its very nature, be taken, every other measure must be taken in the dark. Houses and funds and books are all important, but they are only the means of enabling the mind of the teacher to act upon the minds of his pupils. And they must inevitably fail of their greatest effect, till you have prepared the mind of the teacher to act upon that of the pupil to the greatest advantage.'

Towards the close of the same pamphlet from which we have taken our last extract, after giving an outline* of the principal features of an institution for the education of teachers, the author briefly states some of the peculiar advantages to the public, which he expects to flow from such an establishment.

'These are general advantages of a good class of teachers. I am now to speak of the peculiar advantages of the proposed institution to produce them. The library collected with reference to the object of the institution would contain when complete, all the *facts* in the science of education scattered along in the history of the world. Facts are the materials of philosophy. And we cannot philosophise safely until we have an extensive stock before us. Our library will be a peculiarly appropriate place not only to collect those phenomena relating to the subject, which have already been observed, but also to receive the records of those which will be daily passing before our eyes. Books connected with and collateral to the subject of education, will be as important to our purpose as those professedly written upon it. And frequently they will be found to be much more so. Because the former contain facts and phenomena, while the latter have only an author's reasonings upon them. And most authors who have written upon education have reasoned very well, but from very limited and imperfect inductions. So that their conclusions, though oftentimes extremely plausible and even correct, as far as they had the necessary means of making them correct, are liable to fail totally, when reduced to practice under circumstances a little different. We want more experience before we begin to reason at large and draw sweeping conclusions on the subject. And our library would be chiefly valuable as containing that experience, accurately and authentically recorded.

These with the other facts and phenomena, which might be observed and collected, would afford the means of philosophising with some safety and confidence. But the conclusions of the ancients on the subject, though received and repeated by every body and forever, are not binding and, beyond question, till we have certain knowledge that the facts, from which they reasoned, are *all* which can affect the principles which they deduce from them. And to believe, that the experience of two thousand years, embracing the present age, which is so full of phenomena of all kinds, has not added something to our means of a copious and safe induction upon principles of education, requires a stretch of credulity, with which my mind is not gifted. I believe it

* It is a circumstance on which we may congratulate every enlightened friend to the improvement of education that Mr. Carter, the author of the pamphlet above alluded to, is now engaged in establishing a seminary for the instruction of teachers. The state of Massachusetts ought, as has often been remarked, to take the lead in such an enterprise; and none who are acquainted with the experience and ability of Mr. Carter, his long-continued attention to this subject, and his familiarity with all its requisite details, can entertain a doubt of his competency to the undertaking in which he has embarked. Of the success of the proposed seminary we may augur well from the extensive and favorable expression of public sentiment on this topic, and from the attention which it has already received from the legislatures of this and of other states.

would be safer as a general principle to assume that they teach us what to avoid rather than what to imitate.'

'But when we have collected the means of philosophising which books can afford, and added to them the living means which will be constantly exhibited in the school, which is to form a part of the institution, we are then to lay all these means before professors of distinguished talents and discriminating minds, who are able and willing to *observe* as well as reason. Then the public attention should be turned towards those professors in good earnest, and they should see and feel that something is expected from them, and there is a moral certainty that the expectation will be gratified. When the public attention is turned towards any subject, all the ardent and discriminating minds act in concert. And like the rays of the sun converged to a point by a lens, they act with an intensity which must produce an effect.'

'It would be one of the peculiar advantages of the proposed institution, that it would elevate the character of teachers generally. It would concentrate and give energy and direction to exertions and inquiries, which are now comparatively wasted for want of such direction. We cannot foresee, precisely, what effect would be produced upon our systems of education and our *principles of instruction*, by subjecting them to such an ordeal. To foretel all the improvements that would be made, would be to make them, and supersede the necessity of an institution for the purpose. Though the necessity would still remain for an institution to propagate them among the people. But if our principles of education, and particularly our principles of government and instruction are not already perfect, we may confidently expect improvements, though we may not know, precisely, in what they will consist.'

'Many knew twenty years ago that steam was expansive. But who foresaw the *degree* to which its expansion could be raised, and the purposes to which it could be applied? Public attention was turned to the subject in earnest, and we now see *vessels* moving in every direction by its power. It was known long since that light wood would float, and water run down hill. But who foresaw, twenty years ago, the present state of our internal improvement by means of *canals?* Public attention and powerful minds were directed to the subject, and we now see boats ascending our mountains and traversing our continent in every direction. Those who were before almost our antipodes are now, by the facilities of communication, made our neighbors. The most intrepid prophet would hardly have dared, even ten years ago, to predict the present state of our manufactories. This has all been done, because *it could be done;* and many minds were directed to the subject and resolved, that *it should be done.* All these are in many respects analogous cases, and go to show, that we do not always know how near to us great improvements are. And that it is only necessary to direct the public attention to a subject to ensure some improvements and inventions in it.'

INTELLIGENCE.

COL. AMOROS' GYMNASTIC SCHOOL, PARIS.

THE French Government having resolved to encourage the institution of M. Amoros, professor of gymnastics at Paris, the minister of the interior appointed five commissioners to examine in all their parts the gymnastic exercises, and to report thereon in detail. M. Amoros first gave the committee an idea of what he calls elementary exercises, which consist in chanting different pieces, the rythm of each of which corresponds with the various movements of the legs, arms, and body, which the pupils execute on the spot. A metronome regulates these movements. The pupil thus learns to measure time and space, to regulate with precision the common step, the accelerated step, and the leaps of the gymnastic course. These exercises impress upon their different movements a rythm which befits them ; they give greater developement to the voice, and more force to the lungs: they render the joints more supple, prepare the pupils for fatigue, and dispose them to exercise in the open air. The committee were too enlightened not to appreciate the advantages of chaunting in connexion with gymnastic exercises. To accustom the pupils to preserve their equilibrium, so necessary in certain cases of danger, M. Amoros made three of the pupils take a ball of 6 pounds, and hold it sometimes with the left hand, sometimes with the right, the superior extremity horizontally extended, and advanced in front. The same exercise was repeated with the inferior extremities, the ball being supported alternately by each foot. To sustain the effort, maintain the station, to keep all the moveable points of the body in a fixed position, to subject the extremities to the tarsus, and make the different points of the latter a solid pivot, which maintains the effort and re-establishes the centre of gravity, are the principal muscular actions which this exercise requires.

The pupils in the court and stadium then applied the theoretical principles which they had just learned, and here the committee witnessed the utility of the gymnastic method. They saw with what precision all the various exercises were performed, as well those that required great rapidity of motion, as those that depend on firmness and strength. Many among them obtained 350, 440 and 550 degrees of the dynamometer ; for it is by this instrument that M. Amoros calculates the progressive developement of their muscular powers.

We have seen feeble and timid men acquire in a short time by gymnastic exercises very considerable strength and boldness, and their *moral energy* rise in proportion to the increase of their physical strength. From the stadium, the pupils proceeded to the inclosure where the machines were erected, and where they performed the exercises of running over inclined planes; clearing barriers, climbing masts, walking upon unstable beams, mounting ladders 36 feet high and slipping down, ascending heights by means of ropes and poles, and by men so suspended as to serve as ladders, and descending again with the greatest facility.

The commissioners, surprised at the strength, suppleness, agility, and address of the pupils, testified their satisfaction and acknowledged the utility of the exercises. These were terminated by their vaulting over wooden horses, and also over living ones, and by the conquerors receiving the prizes due to their superior skill.

The design of this institution is not merely to regulate and perfect the physical powers of his pupils, but to teach and dispose them to lend assistance to the weak, and to aid their fellow creatures when in danger. Those who first witness these exercises are in constant fear for the safety of the pupils ; but their elementary lessons accustom them gradually to measure their force and skill: they

are able by proceeding from simple to compound exercises to acquire solid instruction. If accidents occur, they arise evidently from disobedience, presumption, or forgetfulness of principles so well explained and applied in the establishment. *London Scientific Gazette.*

LONDON MECHANICS' INSTITUTION.

A quarterly general meeting of this laudable Society was recently held to receive the Tenth Quarterly report. Dr. Birbeck, the President, was in the chair; and the members who attended nearly filled the large theatre of the institution. The Report began by expressing the satisfaction felt by the Committee at the manner in which similar institutions had been established and were now flourishing in various parts of the kingdom. It then described what had been done for the London Mechanics' Institution since the last quarterly meeting. The receipts were £506—the expense £525, a portion of which, upwards of £100, was paid for gas-fittings, and other similar charges, not incurred above once in twenty years. The funds arose chiefly from the members' subscriptions, £411 having been collected from this source. Upwards of £30 was received for transferable tickets, and £9 for the use of the theatre by various other societies. The expenses, independent of the sums already mentioned, were chiefly payments to lecturers and teachers, the rent and taxes of the premises, interest of money borrowed for building the theatre, stationary, officers' salaries, &c. The library now consists of 2500 volumes, and the number of members who read is rapidly on the increase. Since the last quarter day 574 members have been added and 397 have ceased to belong to the society, making an increase on the quarter of 177, the whole number of members being now 1772. The lectures delivered were on geography, mechanics, geology, electricity, and astronomy. The schools have been opened, and assiduously frequented for writing, French, architectural and mathematical drawings, and arithmetic. The latter classes have been so much followed that it is now proposed to have a second school of the same description. There is also to be formed an excellent school of mutual instruction in the Mechanics; or a sort of secondary lecture, after the lectures on this subject shall have been delivered. The Report was unanimously received.—Thanks were voted to the several lecturers, and to the Chairman, with great applause, for the interest they had taken in the welfare of the Institution.

English Newspaper.

EDUCATION IN LOWER CANADA.

The month of August is the time at which the vacations of the different seminaries, colleges and schools, throughout this province, usually take place; and these vacations are generally preceded by a public examination of the scholars, and a distribution of prizes to those who have been distinguished by their proficiency and good conduct during the year.

The increasing interest taken in these examinations, by all classes of the people, is a proof of the zeal in favor of the education which now pervades the whole province. At Quebec, Montreal, Nicolet and St. Hyacinthe, the spacious halls of those public institutions, were literally crowded with spectators; and at many of the country schools where examinations were had, the same pleasing circumstance occurred. Everywhere the students and Scholars showed the greatest aptitude for learning, and in many instances gave proof of astonishing proficiency.

Little or nothing has been done by public authority in favor of the education of the people since the conquest; or what has been done has been in a way which had a tendency to alarm the inhabitants of the country, mostly Roman Catholics, in respect to their religion, to which they are so sincerely attached. The college and revenues of the Jesuits originally destined for the education of the youth of the country, have long ceased to be applied to that object, and the public moneys granted for schools have been applied under the unfavorable circumstances mentioned above. In addition to the Seminary of Quebec and the College of Mon-

treal, for which the country is chiefly indebted to the Ecclesiastical Corporations of the Quebec Seminary and of Saint Sulpice at Montreal, the late Catholic Bishop established, chiefly out of his own funds, the College of Nicolet, and Mr. Girouard, Curate of St. Hyacinthe, established that of St. Hyacinthe, both of which are now in a very flourishing condition. The four may contain about 800 or 1000 students, many of whom go through the usual courses in the French, English, Latin and Greek languages, mathematics, rhetoric, and natural philosophy. There are besides in the Country parishes 24 schools in the District of Montreal, 17 in the District of Quebec, and 7 in the District of Three Rivers, many of which are well conducted and numerously attended: in some parishes, however, the schools are occasionally ill attended, or altogether closed from the want of means, or a deficiency of suitable masters. In the District of Montreal, there are eight country boarding houses for young girls, kept by the sisters of the congregation, who devote themselves altogether to female education, and five in the District of Quebec.

In all these colleges and schools, Catholic religious instruction forms a part of the usual course of education. The funds for their establishment have generally been derived from charitable donations; and they are supported partly from the same sources, but principally from the contributions paid by the scholars and boarders, which are, however, very moderate.

The English language is taught in all the colleges and principal schools; and the progress of the pupils in this respect, in some country parishes where English is hardly spoken, is astonishing. The people are thus doing, voluntarily and zealously, from a sense of the utility of possessing that language, what no measures of a compulsory tendency could ever have induced them to do. It is even said that an extensive establishment of education is about to be commenced at Chambly, where there are to be employed several able teachers of both the English and French languages, with a view of affording the benefit of an education in French to the inhabitants of the adjoining States, and in English to the Canadians.

In the foregoing enumeration of colleges, schools, &c. neither those of the towns of Quebec, Montreal, nor Three Rivers, more specially destined for the education of the children in the towns, are included. There are besides seven or eight schools of the Royal institution in the country parts chiefly inhabited by Catholics, and thirty-eight in other parts of the province of a more mixed population.

Quebec Gazette.

PROGRESS OF EDUCATION AMONG THE HOTTENTOTS.

At all the institutions are found Sunday Schools both for adults and children, in active operation, and zealously supported by the people themselves, as well as by almost every individual resident at the station, whose assistance could be made useful as teachers. Many of the latter class were selected from among the Hottentots; and when it is considered, that not less than six hundred adults and from three to four hundred children are regularly receiving instruction, and learning to read the scriptures in the schools—and that the greatest number of the children are also taught on week days, to read and write English—it is impossible for a moment to doubt the utility of the institutions, or to deny that the work of improvement is going forward. The progress of persons advanced in years, who have but one day in seven, to learn, cannot be otherwise than slow; and doubtless, much remains to be done; but while the effect of these schools on the morals of the Hottentots is already very apparent, in their better observance of the Lord's day, and the useful appropriation of that portion of time, which before was too often spent in idleness, the very general desire of instruction thus evinced both for themselves and their children, affords a gratifying proof of the influence of Christian principles on their minds; and cannot fail, at no distant period, to produce a striking and important change in the character and habits of the people.—In the day schools, we had much satisfaction in seeing the British system introduced. The progress which the children had made in English, considering the short time since it had been introduced into the schools, appeared very credit-

able to the teachers; while the facility with which they learn, and the readiness of their replies to questions put to them on scripture history, afford a satisfactory refutation of the charge of intellectual incapacity, which some have unguardedly thrown out against the Hottentots in general. *Mission. Herald.*

EDUCATION IN MEXICO.

Extract of a letter from a distinguished member of the Franklin Institute, now in Mexico.

In the city of *Puebla de los Angeles*, on the route from Vera Cruz to this place there is a society formed, for the dissemination of education to all classes of the community. The short stay I made in that city, did not permit me to obtain a full knowledge of the principles upon which it is formed; but I was told that it supported an elementary school, (*de primeras letras*) in which, about 500 boys are gratuitously taught reading, writing, &c. and connected with this, is a drawing school, in like manner gratuitous; in which, about one hundred pupils are instructed. From the drawings which I saw, I was satisfied that some of them had made great progress. I was informed, that the scholars remain as long as they please in the school. No false pride prevents the rich (who are members of the society) from sending their sons to this school, to be instructed with the poor. It is gratifying to add, that notwithstanding all the abuse lavished upon the catholic clergy, as inimical to the diffusion of education, this society has been in a great measure supported by the liberal zeal of the Bishop, and of another respectable prelate, who is at present in his 80th year, and whose whole life has been devoted to the extension of learning, and to the diffusion of the principles of equal rights in all men. The society appears to include many objects, which, with us, would be divided between many. To promote the public good, by educating the poor; to encourage the fine arts; and to extend support to the useful arts, are, however, its principal objects.

VIEW OF COLLEGES IN THE UNITED STATES.

We present below a summary view of the number of graduates at sixteen of our Colleges, in different years. Although our list embraces less than half of the Colleges in our land, the number of graduates which they annually send forth is probably about two thirds of the whole. On this supposition, the young men who complete a course of public education in the United States, may be stated at about 750 annually. And as the number of graduates is to the whole number of students as one to five nearly, the latter may be estimated at not far from 3750.

Colleges.	Grad. in 1823.	Grad. in 1824.	Grad. in 1825.	Grad. in 1826.
Waterville College,	3	3	3	7
Bowdoin College,	31	13	37	31
Dartmouth College,	34	28	26	37
Vermont University,	8	9	13	13
Middlebury College,	17	24	16	19
Williams College,	7	15	19	24
Amherst College,	3	17	23	32
Harvard College,	37	67	58	53
Brown University,	27	41	48	27
Yale College,	73	68	68	100
Union College,	67	79	62	71
Hamilton College	34	17	23	23
Columbia College	29	22	21	24
Princeton College	36	47	38	29
Dickinson College	10	24	19	14
University of Penn.	23	14	14	8
16 Colleges,	448	488	488	517

N. Y. Observer.

THEOLOGICAL SEMINARIES.

Denomination.	*Location.*
Congregational Church of New England,	at Andover, Mass.
do. do.	Bangor, Me.
Baptist Church,	Newton, near Boston.
do. do.	Hamilton, N. Y.
do. do.	Washington City, D. C.
Presbyterian Church,	Princeton, N. J.
do. do.	at Hampden Sydney College.
do. do.	Maryville, Tenn.
do. do.	Auburn, N. Y.
do. do.	Western Seminary at ——.
Episcopal Church,	New-York.
do. do.	Alexandria, D. C.
do. do.	Ohio.
Roman Catholic,	Georgetown, D. C.
do. do.	Emmettsburg, Md.
Dutch Reformed,	Brunswick, N. J.
Moravian,	Nazareth, Pa.
German Reformed,	Carlisle, Penn.
Evangelical Lutheran,	Hartwick, N Y.
do. do.	Gettysburg, Penn.

Evan. Lutheran Intelligencer.

CENTRAL SCHOOL, CITY OF NEW-YORK.

At a meeting of the Board of Public Schools, held yesterday in the College Hall, a resolution was adopted appointing a committee on the subject of erecting a Central School for the education of Tutors and Monitors, and as a place of promotion, from the general public schools of such of the pupils as should be found peculiarly deserving of distinction. No arrangement would seem to be better calculated to infuse into the present monitorial system of instruction in this city, that increased ardour and emulation, which are so essential to its success.

GENEVA COLLEGE, ONTARIO COUNTY, NEW-YORK.

This recent institution went into operation as a College in September, 1825, having been raised to the rank of a College from 'The Geneva Academy,' by charter conditionally granted by the Regents of University in April, 1822, and confirmed in February, 1825, when the required conditions were complied with by the trustees of the Academy. It is situated in the flourishing village of Geneva, county of Ontario, New-York, 192 miles west of Albany; and is built upon the high bank of Seneca Lake, overlooking for many miles the counties of Seneca and Tompkins towards the east. The present edifice is built of graywacke stone, plain, but very substantial. It contains 26 rooms for students, besides a large room for a chapel, and a small one for a library. All the rooms are without fireplaces, but furnished with stoves, which are not only a greater safeguard against fire, but greatly diminish the expense for fuel.

The charges per annum made by the College against each student for tuition, rent, servants' hire, &c. amount to 45 dollars.

The present officers of the college,

Rev. Jasper Adams, A. M. President, and Professor of Belles Lettres, Rhetoric and Logic.

Rev D. McDonald, D. D. Professor of Languages,

Mr. Horace Webster, A. M. Professor of Mathematics and Natural Philosophy,

Rev. John S. Stone, A. B. Tutor.

The Annual Commencement is on the 1st Wednesday in August, succeeded by a vacation of five weeks. Two weeks vacation will be given at Christmas and New-Year, and three weeks in April; making ten weeks in the year.

A conspicuous feature in Geneva College is the introduction of an English course of study, in which the student may pursue all that is studied at colleges in general, without the dead languages. The classical department is not infringed upon by the introduction of this English department; but both are made to exist in the college at the same time. The common honors of a college are reserved for such young gentlemen, as pass their examinations in the classical department, whilst an English diploma will be granted to such as shall be able to pass an examination in all the other studies of college, omitting the Latin and Greek languages. The student who wishes to receive only an English education, enters either the last term of the Freshman Class that he may study fractions and the roots; or the first term of the Sophomore year that he may commence with that class under the Professor of Mathematics. Three years will be necessary to carry him through the English course, if he also studies French, which is intended to be comprehended under this head. The following subjects are embraced under the head of English studies, a term adopted in contradistinction to that of the classical course.

English Grammar, the Roots and Fractions of Arithmetic, large Geography, Rhetoric, Moral Philosophy, Evidences of Christianity, Geometry, Algebra, Mensuration, Navigation, Surveying, Plane and Spherical Trigonometry, Conic Sections, Descriptive Geometry (in French or English,) Differential and Integral Calculus (in French or English,) Geometrie Analytique, Natural Philosophy, Astronomy, Logic, Metaphysics, Chemistry, with its applications to the Mechanic Arts and to Agriculture, Botany, Mineralogy, Political Economy, and General Law.

In the Classical Department, the usual authors, read in other institutions of a similar nature, are required to be studied in this college. It is not intended by the trustees and faculty of this college to make any innovation upon the long established course of classical studies pursued in colleges and universities of our country; nor to entertain a suspicion that they are not indispensably necessary to a student ambitious of the name of a man of letters. But they think that the present calls of the community, the good of our country in a practical sense, and the strong wishes of thousands of individuals demand, that the sons of persons, unable or unwilling to afford the time or expense of a full course, should not be deprived of an education approximating to the one ordinarily gained at our colleges. They see no reason why a young man designed for the farm or a trade should not have an opportunity of being well instructed in what will usually meet the eye or the practice of a man in this busy agricultural, commercial, and we hope soon to say, manufacturing country. Facilities for acquiring this education in its best mode are rarely found in our academies. Their means are ordinarily too limited to afford a competent number of instructers; and their pupils often too numerous, especially in the lower classes, to allow the Principal time to devote his attention to those higher branches, which in a college are the duties of a Professor.

With these views in mind, the Trustees of Geneva College, at their first meeting, now nearly a year since, ordered that there should be perpetually in their college, a course of study to be denominated the English course, in which students might be taught every thing usually taught in colleges, with the exception of the Latin and Greek languages. The experiment is now making, and the result bids fair to answer the expectations of the community.

EDUCATION IN BUENOS AYRES.

A short time since, an American gentleman, who has been for several years residing in Buenos Ayres, put into our hands a manuscript, embracing his notes and observations on the state of education, morals, religion, &c. in that metropolis.—As most of the facts mentioned are of a very recent date, and illustrate the great advance of improvement, which has been made in that part of South America within a few years, we presume that the following abstract will not be uninteresting to our readers. Those who would duly estimate this advance, must remem-

ber that previous to 1810, when Buenos Ayres was subject to Spain, all access to the colony by foreigners was prohibited by the mother country, and even the inhabitants of different provinces were not allowed to hold intercourse with each other, except under the strictest regulations; that all books were prohibited except such as had been inspected by the inquisition; that every possible impediment was thrown in the way of education; that many of the schools established by the inhabitants were suppressed by order of the government, and that in those which were tolerated, all instruction in the liberal sciences was prohibited; and that parents were not allowed to send their children abroad for their education.

Since this people threw off the Spanish yoke, a considerable sum, which has been regularly increased from year to year, has been annually set apart for the general purposes of education. In 1824, the amount appropriated was between 90 and 100,000; and in 1825, more than 125,000. The whole number of primary schools in the province of Buenos Ayres, according to the latest official statement, is 105. These contain about 5000 children, two thirds of whom are boys. At least 30 of these are free schools, taught on the plan of Lancaster, and the expense is defrayed by the government. The others are private schools, and are conducted, some on the plan of Lancaster, and the rest in the ordinary way. No less than seven of the schools are taught by foreigners.

The attention paid *by the government* to *female education* is particularly worthy of notice, and of commendation. A society of females of the first respectability, denominated 'The Society of Beneficence,' was lately established by public authority, and to it is committed the superintendence and direction of all the public schools for females, the house of orphans, and other public institutions intended for the benefit of young children and of the female sex. According to the latest statements, this Society had under its care six public schools, containing between five and six hundred female children. 'One of the most interesting scenes,' says our informant, 'that I ever witnessed, was the annual distribution of premiums, awarded by this society to those of the girls who had excelled. The ceremony took place in a large church, on one of the days celebrated in memory of the revolution. The children from the different female schools were assembled and seated in rows in the middle of the church. The ladies of the society sat in front, and seats were also reserved for the officers of government, among whom was the Secretary of State, who was present in the name of the governor, and distributed the rewards, accompanying them with suitable remarks. The spectacle, enlivened at intervals by music, was viewed by the crowded audience around, with deep interest and high gratification.'

According to the latest printed statement, which is that of 1824, the *University of Buenos Ayres* contained 419 students. The studies pursued here, and for which there are corresponding professorships, are drawing, French, Latin, ideology, political economy, mathematics and natural philosophy, medicine and law. 'I was lately present,' says our informant, 'when the rewards were distributed to the students of the collegiate department of the University. They were assembled to the number of about one hundred, with their respective professors, in a large hall of the institution. By previous invitation, a number of the most respectable inhabitants of the city, members of the National Congress, and of the Provincial Legislature, officers of the army, judges, &c. attended. At an hour previously agreed on, the Secretary of State entered, and was conducted to a seat provided for him, as President on this occasion. Soon after, the several students who had excelled, on being called, came forward, distinguished by particular badges. The Secretary then, in the name of the Governor, presented them the various premiums, consisting chiefly of books procured for the occasion, after which he delivered an address to the professors and students, and to the very respectable and highly gratified audience assembled on the occasion.'

In noticing the seminaries of learning, we must not omit the academy founded by the Rev. Mr. Parvin, who was sent several years since to Buenos Ayres, on an exploring tour by the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions. At the opening of his institution, Mr. Parvin had five scholars, and the number has

since been increased to 60. They are the children of the most respectable families in the city; and it is worthy of special notice, that although their parents are Catholics, they are allowed, with scarcely an exception, to read the Bible under the instruction of Mr. P. *N. Y. Observer.*

COLUMBIAN COLLEGE.

Plan of the Law Department of the Columbian College in the District of Columbia.

This College was founded by an act of Congress, of the 9th of February, 1821. Soon after which, its Classical Department went into operation, and a very liberal course of instruction was commenced. Theological, Medical, and Law Departments, have been successively established and organised. The two former, as well as the Classical Department have been in operation for some time, with a degree of success which has encouraged the Trustees to bring into operation, also, the Department of Law. Indeed, no place seems more fit for the establishment of a Law College, than the seat of the national government; where students from every section of the union may often meet many of their friends; where the brightest ornaments of the bar will be assembled: where the best examples of forensic and juridical eloquence will be displayed; where the most important questions arising under the laws and constitutions of the several states, and of the United States, and the law of nations, will be debated and decided; and where, by observing the manners and practice of the highest and most honorable portion of the profession, the student will rise above every thing that is low and sordid, and fix his aim on all that is noble, and manly, and honorable. But the advantages which the city of Washington presents, as a place in which to establish a school for instruction in the law, are so important and obvious, that it cannot be necessary to enumerate them.

The lectures are intended to be continued daily, until the course (which will consist of nearly 400 lectures,) shall be finished; with the exception, however, of one day perhaps in each week, and of the terms of the Circuit Court of the United States, for the County of Washington, D. C. Each lecture will occupy from one to two hours; and the whole course will probably require eighteen months or two years.

In addition to the course upon the usual heads of municipal law, strictly so called, (which will be treated as fully and minutely as may be necessary to qualify the student for actual practice,) it is intended to lecture upon the constitution and laws of the United States, the admiralty jurisdiction and practice of the Courts of the United States, and upon the law of nations.

An examination of the students will take place on every Saturday, upon the subjects which shall have been lectured upon during the preceding week.

A *Moot Court* will be holden once a week, for arguing questions of law previously propounded for discussion, and for trying fictitious causes. In these Courts it is intended that the proceedings shall be regular and formal, as well in making up the record, as in the process and pleadings—so that the student may at the same time acquire a knowledge of the *practice*, as well as of the *theory* of the law.

The students, until a law library for the school shall be otherwise provided, will have the use of the libraries of the professors.

The following is an extract from the laws adopted by the Board of Trustees, for the regulation of the Law Department.

'Be it ordained, by the Columbian College, in the District of Columbia:

'1st. That there shall be a full course of law lectures delivered in the city of Washington, by the professors of law, once in every period of twelve months, or such other period as the said professors shall determine upon, not exceeding two years. Which course shall embrace so much of the common and statute law of England, as may be considered applicable to this country, the constitution and laws of the United States, the laws in force in the District of Columbia, and the constitutions and laws of such of the several states, as the professors may find it

convenient to lecture upon. The first course to commence at such time as the professor shall appoint, and of which they shall give thirty days public notice.

'2d. Each student, before he can receive a ticket of the professors, for admission to the law lectures, shall pay ten dollars to the treasurer of the college, for the purpose of defraying the expenses of, and increasing, the law library, to be expended under the direction of the professors of law, for the sole use of the school: shall have his name entered on the college books, and receive a ticket of matriculation, as evidence that he has placed himself under the government of the trustees of the college and the law professors. He shall also pay to the said professors of law, or secure to their satisfaction, the sum of one hundred dollars, for each course of lectures he shall attend. But all who shall have attended two full courses of lectures in this school, may attend any future course, gratis.

'3d. The students may be admitted at any time; and if any one enter during the progress of a course of lectures, he shall pay only in proportion to the lectures of that course, then remaining to be delivered.

'4th. Each student shall be subject to the rules of discipline which may, from time to time, be ordained by the trustees, and administered by the professors of law.

'5th. All the students of law shall have the privilege of attending, gratuitously, the lectures in the classical department of the college, on natural philosophy, astronomy, botany, natural history, &c. by presenting a recommendation from the professors of law, to the president of the college.

'6th. No student shall be admitted to examination, as a candidate for the degree of Bachelor or Doctor of Laws, until—

1. He shall have attended two full courses of lectures.

2. He shall have read law three years at least, under the direction of a respectable counsellor of law, or judge.

3. He shall have attained the age of twenty-one years.

4. He shall have satisfied the professors of law, of his classical attainments, if he be not a graduate in the arts; and also, of his moral character.

5. He shall have entered his name with the professors of law, as a candidate for graduation, and delivered to them an inaugural dissertation on some head or question of law, thirty days at least before his final examination. Candidates for graduation may be examined by the professors of law, at any time they may appoint. If they shall be satisfied, upon such examination, that the candidate has obtained a sufficient knowledge of the law, to entitle him to the degree which he solicits, they shall so certify to the president of the college, and recommend him as a candidate for the public examination; which examination, for the reading and defence of his dissertation, shall be holden at the college, (on a day to be appointed by the president,) in the presence of the board of trustees, the faculty of the college, and such others as may be invited to attend. When the candidate shall have passed the public examination, the president and professors of law shall certify the same, and recommend him to the board of trustees, as an approved candidate for the degree. If the board of trustees shall approve of the same, they shall signify their approbation and consent, by mandamus to the faculty of the college, who shall proceed to grant said degree, accordingly, at such time and place as shall be signified in such mandamus.'

UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA.

The Visiters of the University of Virginia formed a board on Monday, Oct. 2d, that being the day appointed for their regular autumnal meeting. Messrs. Madison, Monroe, Johnson, Breckenridge, Cabell and Cocke were present. Mr. Madison was appointed Rector. The board have been busily employed every day during the week, in examining the actual state of the University, and deliberating on means for the promotion of its utility. We understand, that some changes in the minor points of the police, and perhaps others of greater importance will be made. The entire plan of this institution has undergone a thorough and strict in-

vestigation, and we may be permitted to hope for the most salutary results from the zealous labors of such men as the visiters. *Central Gaz.*

GYMNASTIC* EXERCISE FOR FEMALES.

[*From the Medical Intelligencer.*]

To the Editor,—In compliance with your request, I will endeavor to furnish you with a brief account of my humble attempts to introduce gymnastic exercises into the Monitorial School; and perhaps not the least gratifying circumstance in my relation will be the fact, that my attempt takes date from the delivery of one of your Lectures on Physical Education, early in the spring of 1825. I had long before noticed the feeble health of many of my pupils, and encouraged them to take more exercise, but they wanted means and example, and little or nothing was effected. The very day after the delivery of your first lecture, I procured two or three bars, and as many pulleys, and after I had explained the manner of using them to the best advantage, my pupils needed no further encouragement to action. The recess was no longer a stupid, inactive season; all were busy and animated. My chief difficulty was in the selection of proper exercises for *females*. You know the prevailing notions of female delicacy and propriety are at variance with every attempt to render females less feeble and helpless,—and the bugbears of rudeness, romping, &c. are sure to stare every such attempt in the face. I read all the books I could find, but met with very little applicable to the instruction of females. It seemed as if the sex had been thought unworthy of any effort to improve their physical powers. But the beneficial effects of what I had already introduced, led me to persevere, and I have finally succeeded in contriving apparatus and exercises enough to keep all employed in play hours. Besides the ordinary exercises of raising the arms and feet, and extending them in various directions, we have various methods of hanging and swinging by the arms, tilting, raising weights, jumping forward, marching, running, *enduring*, &c. &c. I have no longer any anxiety about procuring suitable exercises, or in sufficient variety, for my pupils; and I believe the few parents whose more prim education led them to shudder at my innovation, have surrendered their prejudices.

As to the effect of the exercises on the character and conduct of the pupils, it may be recorded for the encouragement of others, that many weak and feeble children have at least doubled their strength, and now disdain the little indulgences which were then thought necessary to them. Some very dull children have become more animated, and some over sprightly ones have found an innocent way of letting off their exuberant spirits; the discipline of the school has not been impaired, nor has my participation in the exercises of the children lessened their respect for me or my orders. I do not pretend that every dull child has been completely excited, nor that every wild one has been tamed, nor every vicious one reformed, but I do believe that no child has been made worse than she would have become without the exercises, while many, very many, have been essentially benefitted. I would not conceal the fact that many hands have been blistered, and perhaps a little hardened by the exercises, but I have yet to learn that the perfection of female beauty consists in a soft, small, and almost useless hand, any more than in the cramped, diminutive, deformed, and useless feet of the Chinese ladies. But some of the old school say, why not let the children walk much, and exercise themselves in useful household labors. I should recommend both these methods of exercise, but do not think they would be a complete substitute for gymnastics, though a very useful aid to them. But the fact is the children of the present day

* Would it not be well to avoid a term, the etymology of which renders it now so inapplicable, and to designate this department of the physical education, of females at least—by the phrase *hygeian exercise? Names*, it is true, are not commonly of very great importance. But the *fact* is that the term gymnastic is connected with an idea of coarseness, which in the early stage of the progress of this branch of education, might create a prejudice against it.—*Ed. Jour. Education.*

are not thus employed at home, but on the contrary are engaged in the health destroying business of committing books to memory, and filling the mind with indigestible food, that it may be a suitable companion for its dyspeptic envelope. I hope the day is not far distant when gymnasiums for women will be as common as churches in Boston, and when our young men, in selecting the mothers of their future offspring, will make it one condition of the covenant that they be healthy, strong, capable of enduring fatigue, encountering danger, and helping themselves, and those who will naturally and of right, look to them for assistance. Very respectfully, Your friend and servant,

Boston, Oct. 1826. WILLIAM B. FOWLE.

[The following remarks are from the Editor of the Intelligencer.]

We value this letter mainly, in the first place, because it is the first account we have seen of gymnastics having been successfully practised in any school for girls, in any part of the United States; and secondly, because it is the first direct evidence we have had that the feeble, though persevering efforts, we have from time to time made, to bring into notice and favor the long missing, though fundamental branch of education, have produced any good effect.

There is nothing new to us in the contents of this letter, though there may be to others; for we have often seen the teacher's ingenuity in devising, putting up and using the apparatus in his miniature gymnasium; and have been permitted to share in the exercises of the place, till the little happy pupils were quite willing to admit us to be of their number.

In relation to these exercises as applicable to females there are some questions which deserve consideration. Can they be rendered appropriate, becoming, and useful? That a sufficient number of these exercises can be selected and adapted to the character, station, and wants of girls and women, is the unanimous opinion of those individuals on the continent, in England, and in America, who are best acquainted with the subject; and in all these countries trials are now going on which will, in due time, make this opinion the common conviction of every inquiring and enlightened mind.

Women in general, from their relations and duties, need the preserving and invigorating movements of the gymnasium, more than men, and when they shall have realised their vivifying effects, will be as much attached to them. In reference to this subject, the question is frequently asked, 'are not walking, riding, and an attention to domestic concerns and duties, quite as good for health, and more useful and suitable for women, than the queer motions and gesticulations of the gymnasium?' To answer briefly, we say no, they are not! Who is right? Let *facts* decide; and to ascertain where the facts, in the case are to be found, let this quere be first disposed of. What has been done for the last half century in the American Union, to render our women what *they are capable of being made*, healthy efficient and happy beings?

TEACHERS OF GYMNASTICS.

[No information, perhaps, which we could communicate would be more useful than that contained in the following paragraphs. Gymnastic schools have been recently established in several places where, if we mistake not, teachers are not yet obtained. The friends of physical education at Yale College, or in New-York or Philadelphia, may be gratified to learn that well qualified instructers—men of eminence in science and literature, as well as in the gymnastic art, may be engaged on very reasonable terms to aid the progress of public improvement in this department of education.

The introductory paragraphs of the following article, are extracted from a recent letter of our literary countryman Mr. Neal, who has taken a very active part in aiding the interests of Prof. Voelker's gymnastic establishment in London; and to whose attention we have been repeatedly indebted for intelligence on gymnastics.]

'You know my zeal about gymnastics. I have been heartily engaged for above a year in the study and practice of them in every variety; and under a hope that

I may be of use to my countrymen. I have found
qualified, almost beyond example, for teachers.
and the certificate of one, who was a chief persona

Proposals of Dr. Francis L

1. Dr. Lieber proposes to establish a Gymnasium
necessary are to be furnished him.

2. That Dr. Lieber has a free passage from Eng

3. That *800 dollars be guaranteed to Dr. Lieb

4. That if 1000 dollars be given in the first yea
Baur, student of theology, with him to America, to
very advantageous to the pupils, as Mr. Baur pre
Tubingen; and was several years under Dr. Jah
Berlin. Dr. Lieber thinks that Mr. Baur would
there were for future time any prospect of employ
or as a protestant minister; but as Dr. Lieber o
Mr. Baur going to America, he would like to kno
If there are given 1000 dollars to Dr. Lieber, Mr.
to America.

5. Dr. Lieber also proposes to establish a Swimm
place must be furnished him, and he will pay interes
by instalments, until he has paid the principal.

6. That Dr. Lieber is not to pay any *interest*
the Gymnasium.

[The following is the certificate of professor Jah

Francis Lieber, Doctor in Philosophy, has, during
in summer and winter, gone through the whole co
the gymnasium over which I, the undersigned, pres
me in several pedestrian excursions, among others
and in 1818 to the Riesen mountains, on which tr
gymnasiums.

Having found him of good moral behavior, inge
good leader and teacher of gymnastics, I thought it
to propose him to the government of the Rhenish
for the situation of a teacher of gymnastic exercise

Beloved by the young scholars; esteemed and
or a more advanced age than himself, he was elect
which was intended to represent the society of
translate this term exactly: all the 'Turners' w
the art generally, with a view as well to the art its

At the time when Dr. Lieber, was daily with me
eternal maxims of truth, duty, and liberty, which
gress of human kind.

The journeys which he has since performed thro
France, Italy and Greece, have no doubt still far
and enlarged his mind; but on this point I cannot
having since lost sight of him although he lives in m

At the request of Dr. Lieber I have given this te
law, written with my own hand, with my seal affix
cipality of my present abode. Freiburg, on the U
of Saxony. Aug. 1st, 1826. (Signed) FREDI
L. S.

* This will be a matter for negotiation. I have
employed, he will be supported respectably, and
pretty sure. I should mention that Dr. L. speaks
quite intelligible to every body; and that he tea
they are usually taught, but swimming, riding, and

I certify that the subscription is by the own hand of the Dr. Frederick Lewis Jahn, from here. Freiburg, August 1, 1826.

Municipality of Freiburg,

L. S. (Signed) FUHRMANN.

[In addition to the above, Dr. Leiber has a very satisfactory certificate from Maj. Gen. Phuel who invented the new method of teaching to swim, and established the Prussian Military Swimming Schools.

It may be proper to add that Dr. Lieber is known and approved by Dr. Follen, Professor of civil law in Harvard University, and superintendent of the gymnasium in Boston.]

INFANT SCHOOL.—PHILADELPHIA.

At the Children's Asylum, in Southwark, (lower end of Fifth st.) a hundred children of the poor have been taught according to the plans used in infant schools, in England, and their proficiency is very striking.

GYMNASIUM IN BOSTON.

In our last, we had barely room to mention the opening of the gymnasium, with a very large number of pupils. A month's opportunity of observing its progress and participating in its exercises, enables us now to say that thus far it gives the utmost satisfaction to those who have made the experiment of taking a course of lessons. The physical effects of the gymnastic exercise, on pupils of very different ages—from ten to fifty—are surprising. Many have doubled their vigor, and attained that habitual glow of activity which does not die away immediately after the hour for exercise is over, but accompanies the individual into the transaction of business, or sustains him through the tedious hours of sedentary application. The general and substantial improvement of health, is another benefit arising from the gymnasium. Periodical and permant headachs, which nothing else could affect, have in some instances been done away; and to all this may be added the ability for various bodily movements and efforts, which, a month ago, seemed to the same individuals who now perform them with ease, to require an energy almost miraculous.

From what has been already experienced of the effects of gymnastic exercise, it is not, we think, saying too much to venture the assertion that the gymnasium, especially when contemplated with reference to the juvenile part of society, seems to furnish the means of raising the human system to any degree of vigor and of health, which the common, or even the extraordinary circumstances of life, in any of its various pursuits, are likely to demand.

Judicious culture may turn into any channel, the force and buoyancy of animal and mental feeling, and the clearness and energy of thought, which are always the attendants on health and exercise; and which the gymnasium furnishes to such an amount. As an acknowledged part of education, moreover, it affords an authorised channel for all those exuberant extravagances of mere animal impulse and glee, which now too often leave the traces of care and anxiety on the brow of the teacher; and sometimes bring down on the thoughtless performer expressions of displeasure, or the more palpable corporeal intimations by which he is sometimes reminded of his faults.

Perhaps one of the most gratifying circumstances connected with the gymnasium in this city, is the great diversity of situations in life to which the pupils belong. Physicians, lawyers, and clergymen, are intermixed with young men from the counter and the countinghouse, and with boys from the public schools. This circumstance is found not at all unfavorable to the decorum or the success with which the exercises are conducted, and is, we think, a very satisfactory indication of the extensive interest which the great subject of physical education has excited.

The Gymnasium is under the superintendence of Dr. Follen, late Professor of Civil Law at the University of Bâle in Switzerland, and at present instructer in Harvard University. He is assisted by Mr. Turner, a distinguished gymnast of the establishment at Cambridge.

NOTICES.

WORKS IN THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.

A Gazetteer of the State of New York: embracing an ample Survey and Description of its Counties, Towns, Cities, Villages, Canals, Mountains, Lakes, Rivers, Creeks, and Natural Topography, arranged in one Series, alphabetically; with an Appendix, embracing—1. The new Counties and Towns, erected in 1823; 2. A Concise Geography of the State, with all its Civil Divisions, to January 1, 1824; 3. A Table of all the Post Offices in the state, to Jan. 1, 1824,—showing their Names, the Towns and Counties in which situated, and their Distances from their respective County Towns, from Albany, and Washington. With a new Map, and Profiles of the Canals. By Horatio Gates Spafford, LL. D. Albany, 1824. 8vo. pp. 620.

This work is the result of prodigious labor, and must have tasked the patience and perseverance of its author to a degree far beyond what attends the ordinary toils and vexations of compiling a volume of this sort. The accuracy of the details of this Gazetteer, is guaranteed by the express attestations of those individuals, whose departments of the public business of the state of New York, have rendered them most competent to decide in such matters.

This and all similiar works are the means of giving geographical instruction a right direction; and they are not only proper subjects of notice in our pages, but are the instruments by which intelligent instructers may succeed in a satisfactory discharge of their duties in the school-room.

Geography, rightly taught, may be rendered peculiarly valuable in subserving the purpose of preparation for the actual business and intercourse of life. But as it is usually taught, it is made an excuse for a profound ignorance of a pupil's local situation in the country or state in which he is born and brought up, and which is the sphere of all his active and practical duties. By a strange perversion of method, geography, and even astronomy, are made to precede topography; and the juvenile pupil is expected to prattle about matters which involve difficult solutions in geometry and mathematics, while he knows little or nothing of the extent or limits of his own village or town.

It is by works such as Dr. Spafford's that this quackery in education is to be done away, and that the youth of our country are to become familiar with their own states, counties, and towns, whether they succeed or not in mastering astronomical geography, or calculating the distance of the fixed stars. This is one branch of education in which, at least, the urgent demand for intelligent citizens, well versed in ordinary matters, will, we are confident, force in a useful course of instruction, at the expense of relinquishing to later and higher stages of education those 'preliminary definitions' which sound so pompously in recitation, but add so little to the stock of real knowledge, and furnish so little valuable discipline to the mind.

We do hope that some well-informed, enterprising and indefatigable individual will furnish the state of Massachusetts with a complete and accurate Gazetteer, or rather with a work which might afford a more regular and connected view of its topography and statistics, while it furnished the same quantity of matter as that which would be contained in a Gazetteer. To follow the alphabetical order of the topics, as is commonly done in works of this sort, is not so satisfactory, either to teacher or scholars, as to adopt a systematic course which naturally guides the mind through the whole subject.

Dr. Spafford's work we are happy to observe is recommended for schools, by the late superintendent of common schools in New York. An epitome, expressly adapted to this purpose, accompanies the larger work. It seems, however, too scanty to convey satisfactory information; and if the larger work is found too heavy for the zeal and ability of instructers, and for the patience and application of pupils, perhaps an intermediate work, furnished with one or more very large maps, might prove acceptable, and might remunerate its author for the time and labor he has expended on this useful enterprise.

The Prize Book, No. VI. of the Public Latin School in Boston. Boston: 1826. 8vo. pp. 31.

These 'juvenile performances' may be of valuable service in promoting improvement in education. They may excite in other schools of the same class as that from which they issue, a spirit to emulate the same standard of juvenile scholarship, by the same rigid and truly classical discipline of the youthful mind, which leads to such results as these. And this would be an excellent effect of the publication of the Prize Book. For we are far from thinking that classical learning, in its early stages, generally receives any thing like an attention commensurate to its value. We would not have every boy indiscriminately sent to a Latin school: the rudiments of classical literature can be of little benefit to many who are now goaded through them. But there are professions in which the ancient languages are presupposed as a qualification. Let boys destined for such pursuits learn, and learn thoroughly, whatever may contribute to their familiarity with the classics; and let every book which can aid this good object, be widely circulated, that the character of education may be rendered more respectable, and that the views of instructers may be elevated to a nobler standard—to one more worthy of the attitude in which our country has placed herself, even in this early stage of her progress.

We are far from thinking that improvement in education lies solely in originating better systems, or reforming and remodelling old ones. We do need, and most urgently need, intelligent practice in teaching—skill in applying good methods—the improvement which results from experience and observation, and draws practical conclusions on the spot and at the moment. The best theories in the world, if put into the hands of slovenly and superficial and inexperienced teachers, will work no better results than, in too many instances, we now see:—youth presenting themselves as candidates for admission to college, who can hardly pronounce five words successively, without mangling the noble prosody of the language in which they attempt to read, or betraying the grossest ignorance of the rudiments of its grammar.

In all this we do not mean to overlook the great and rapid improvement in preparatory schools, which has been observable of late years. But we wish to stir up teachers to still greater diligence and to still higher aims. The perusal of the Prize Book will act, we think, as an incitement to effort; and in this light we would earnestly recommend it to instructers.

To turn more directly, however, to the contents of this pamphlet: we would not be understood as holding it up for a perfect model: it has its imperfections and its puerilities. But what reasonable person could expect such a production—the attempts of boys—to be entirely free from such characteristics? Considering the age of its authors, it is highly creditable to them. But, above all, it speaks for the care, the talent, and the taste of the teacher, under whose superintendence the formation of thought and language is so successfully conducted.

As to the question whether it is better to require of boys so great a proportion of their time and labor as such efforts demand,—it is useless to enter into lengthened discussion. To be thorough scholars—and it is for parents, not for teachers, to decide what boys shall be such,—to be familiar with the language, and to catch the spirit and taste of the classics, such exercises are necessary: not to say a word of the invaluable general qualities of mind which they cultivate.

The English part of the Prize Book shows much judgement and taste, and a good deal of practical skill in composing; and we trust that whatever influence

on other schools the Latin department may exert—this will not fail to t the attention of instructers more forcibly than heretofore to the important bra of English composition. The writing and speaking of our own language, we glad to see attended to at all hazards, and to find them so successfully cultiva in a school where the ancient languages are the chief objects of attention. Bu there is any beneficial improvement practicable and urgent in the arrangement this ancient and respectable institution, as well as of preparatory schools genera throughout the country,—it is that of drawing out the cultivation of English rh oric into a distinct department of instruction, instead of merely leaving it scraps of time and attention which can be afforded to it at intervals.

If the literature or the eloquence of America, is ever to be what it ought to —what it can be—the English language, if not placed, (as it should be,) abo both Greek and Latin, must at least be raised so as not to be comparatively on footing of charity, or perhaps of contempt and neglect.

BOOKS FOR CHILDREN.

The Friendless Boy. [A Story for children, published by th American Sunday School Union.] Philadelphia: 1825.

This simple little narrative has a great deal of natural beauty, and of the tr pathetic, in its manner. It cannot be read without a deep and tender interes nor without leaving the best impressions on the sympathies of the young reade its lessons of piety, too, are finely wrought in with the tenor of the story. The are here and there, however, phrases which will be found unintelligible to ver young readers, and which a separate revision with reference to plain and familia expression would have exchanged for others better adapted to infant capacities.

Little Susan and her Lamb. [Published by the American Sunda School Union.] Philadelphia, 1825.

This is an interesting and instructive story, designed to show the inseparabl connection between piety and humane feeling. It is modelled on the first narra tive contained in the Tales for Girls noticed in No. 1 of this Journal It retain the pleasing simplicity of the original, and gives a more decidedly religious an moral complexion to the anecdote.

This and the preceding little book are designed more immediately for the us of Sunday schools. But they convey so much useful pleasing moral instructio and are so well adapted to young children, that they may be advantageously use in other schools, and in families, and even with very young children; as, in th case, the mother or the teacher may tell the story in her own words, and adap it in every respect to the years and capacity of the listeners.

ANSWERS TO CORRESPONDENTS.

Received since last number:

Goodrich's History of the United States—Eaton's Church History—Opie Illustrations of Lying—The First Book, or Spelling Lessons for Primary Schoo —The Classical Reader—Conversations on Common Things [Second Edition]- Sales' Rudiments of the Spanish Language.

AMERICAN

JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

No. XII. DECEMBER, 1826. Vol. I.

PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION.

[From Professor Jardine's Outlines of Philosophical Education.]

[The observations embodied in the following paragraphs, refer to the existing state of professional education in Great Britain. But they are, to a considerable extent, applicable to the same departents in our own systems of instruction; and may suggest many valuable improvements.]

I PROCEED now to make a few remarks on that part of the academical course which has for its object, the qualification of professional men for the duties of public life; and also to suggest some observations on the expediency of extending its limits, so far as to comprehend certain branches of study which, however important in the estimation of literary men, have not yet been introduced into the scheme of university education.

In general, however, my remarks, in this section, apply, not so much to the things which are taught, as to the manner of teaching; for, though I shall take the liberty of suggesting a considerable addition to the professional course, my chief object is to recommend to those who preside over the departments of theology, law, and medicine, the adoption of the practical method of instruction which I have already endeavored to describe.

It is unnecessary to repeat the arguments which have been used in the former division of this chapter, in order to point out the numerous advantages which arise from *employing the mental energies of young men in their own education*, and to expose *the futility of every plan of education, which does not secure the free and constant co-operation of those who are to be taught*. It will require but little reflection to sat-

isfy the candid mind, that the method of teaching which is fou successful in the earlier branches of philosophy, will, with a fe simple modifications, apply to every department of professional e ucation. For as the same faculties of the mind are employed every stage of human research, it is obvious that the same prin ples of reasoning must be called in to guide their operation, a that a similar mode of training should be adopted to invigora their powers. In passing from the department of learning whi occupied the under graduate, to that which engages the student theology, of law, or of medicine, there is only a change of object or a different set of materials on which to work. The intellectu instruments and the mental processes of analysis, comparison, distri bution, and arrangement, continue unchanged. Whatever progres indeed, has been made in the former, will facilitate the advances a young man, in all the pursuits which belong to the latter. His ac quisitions in point of intellectual habits and acuteness, may be re garded as a free stock ready to be employed by him in all his sub sequent undertakings.

With regard, however, to the professional departments of theolo gy, law, and medicine, it has been, by some, maintained that examin ations and the writing of essays, are an unnecessary accompanimen of the lectures delivered by the professor ; because, as the student have generally arrived at such an age, it is to be presumed tha they take such a degree of interest in their professional pursuits as must render all control or inducements to exertion not only quit unnecessary, but even in some measure unseasonable. But this i not a fair statement of the case. The greater number of the stu dents who attend the professional classes, are far from being of ma ture years; and many of them, it may be suspected, have not en joyed so complete a preparatory education, as to justify the neglec of all those means, by which the intellectual faculties are strength ened, and regular habits of application generated and confirmed.

But granting every thing that is assumed by those whose view I am now combating, and admitting the objections I have jus stated in regard to age and previous acquirements, I cannot per ceive any good reason, why young men should be deprived of th numerous and important advantages attending the practical syste of tuition, at the very moment when their studies become the mos closely connected with their success and respectability in the world It is not indeed meant, that the examination at this advanced stag should be as frequent and minute, or that the exercises prescribe should be as numerous as in a first class of philosophy; but it i assuredly meant, that the practical method should be kept up in it full spirit; that there should be the same industry and emulatio on the part of the student, and the same vigilance and control o

the part of the professor, which insured the success of the undergraduate course. I hesitate not to recommend that there should be adopted in the classes of law, divinity, and physic, such a mode of study, and scheme of discipline, as will effectually promote the objects which the several teachers have in view; as will, in short, secure attention to the lectures, and induce the student to acquire a correct and intimate knowledge of all the subjects brought before him. In whatever circumstances lectures are delivered for the instruction of youth, the system of education may be pronounced materially defective, if not followed up with a regular examination:—for even a class of philosophers would give their attention more closely to a scientific discourse, did they know that they must speedily render an account of it, either in conversation or writing, to certain persons, vested with authority to demand such a proof of their application.

There is another objection, which has been sometimes urged against the extension of this practical mode of teaching to the higher professional classes, namely, that students of an advanced age should not be treated like boys, and be subjected to restraint and discipline as if they were at school; and it is accordingly insinuated that a plan of education such as is here recommended, would necessarily lead to a species of incitement, inspection, and control, which in its application would not only prove extremely disagreeable to young men of that age, but also interfere with those higher voluntary exertions in which they might be disposed to engage, so as to render the system altogether useless and impracticable.

It may be sufficient to observe, in reply, that no man of common sense would recommend to a professor of theology, or of medicine, to transfer into his class the discipline of an inferior school; or to employ any other motives to secure the attention of his pupils, than such as appeal to their reason and feelings of duty. Why should it be thought derogatory or disagreeable to a young man, to find that his professor uses means to know whether he be present at the lecture, whether he fully comprehends its various positions and arguments, or, whether farther instruction might not be materially useful to him? Would any sensible professional student, desirous of information and improvement, regard such precautions on the part of his professor, in the light of an insult, or as the occasion of annoyance?

Should he not rather esteem it as a most valuable privilege, to have his early essays brought under the review of an able, impartial, and faithful instructer; to have the places where he has been the least or the most successful, fairly pointed out and appreciated; by this means enabling the student to avail himself by the corrections

and suggestions of his teacher, and to acquire by degrees a facili of more perfect composition, which could not have been effect by mere rules or precepts of any kind? On the contrary, I ventu to assert, that, in a great majority of cases, the care and labor the teacher would be met with corresponding activity and zeal the pupil, and received with an abundant return of gratitude and r spect, of proficiency in learning, and of distinguished profession eminence. *Such are the happy effects of putting questions, of pr scribing exercises, of reading and criticising the compositions of t young men in the hearing of their companions.* Nothing is don which can, in the least degree, mortify the student, or expose hi to reproach and ridicule.

Socrates, the great moral instructer of ancient times, adopted, a the most efficacious mode of communicating knowledge, the form of question and answer; and in this way, without respect to thei age or condition, persevered in his endeavors to enlighten th minds of his countrymen. Such a mode of instruction is found t be highly advantageous in the inferior branches of philosophy; and ought not surely to be rejected by the professional student, merely because it is employed with success in the education of his juniors. There are a thousand things to be learned by the pupil in such in- tercourse, which could never be acquired by general rules. Be- sides, the objection, which we are now considering, rests upon the very unreasonable assumption, that a system of professional educa tion ought to be constructed so as to meet the taste and conve niency of those who are to be taught; and who, according to thi principle, are supposed to have a right to prescribe the plan on which they will be pleased to receive instruction, and to dictate terms as to the amount of the labor and sacrifices to which they may choose to submit. Such are the absurdities into which men al- low themselves to run, whenever they depart from the safe rules o experience in the actual business of life.

The reader will agree with me in thinking it unnecessary to ap ply these general observations to the particular studies of profess ional men. In regard to *law*, there appears to be so little system in the manner of studying it, that it would be extremely difficul either to point out strictures, or to suggest improvements. In some places the professors are not attended at all; and the student is only required to furnish satisfactory evidence that he has eaten a certain number of dinners at the Inns of Court; but no evidence whatever is required that he ever attended the courts of business, even for one day. It is difficult to conceive in what manner learned and sensible men should have adopted a plan of education, in which there are neither teachers nor scholars.

I admit that, as law is to be found in the statute book, and in the decisions of courts of justice, rather than in the general principles of moral obligation, or in any system of first truths, which admits of philosophical exposition, it may not be easily practicable to reduce into the form of doctrines, that unconnected, heterogeneous information, which must be sought for in a variety of separate volumes. But there are, notwithstanding, certain branches of this profession which may be taught systematically, and to which the practical method of education might be applied with succes. The lectures of Mr. Millar, for instance, the late celebrated professor of law in this university, were conducted on the principles I now recommend; and his mode of instruction has every where been regarded as one of the happiest examples of their application to a department of academical study, which is usually thought the farthest removed from the superintendence and assistance of the teacher. It was in no small degree owing to his practice of examining, and of prescribing essays on subjects previously discussed in his lectures, that he acquired that high reputation, as a professor of law, which still attaches to his name. Every morning, before he began his address from the chair, he endeavored to ascertain, by putting a number of questions to his pupils, whether they had been able to follow his reasonings the preceding day; and it was his custom, when the lecture was over, to remain some time in his lecture room, *to converse with those students who were desirous of farther information on the subject.* By engaging with them in an easy dialogue, he contrived to remove obscurities, and to correct any errors into which they might have fallen. This meeting was called among the students, familiarly, *the committee;* from which, many acknowledged that they reaped more benefit than from the lecture itself. It gives me much pleasure to add, that the present professor of law has adopted the practice of examining, after the example of his distinguished predecessor, even in the department of the Scots law. By beginning his course a few weeks sooner, and continuing it, occasionally, a little longer than the period of six months, the time devoted to the academical session, he is able, not only to give a full system of lectures, comprehending all the subjects usually introduced into a course of Scots law, but also to devote a portion of each day to the examination of his students.

It admits not of doubt, therefore, that much good would arise from extending the manner of teaching which was so successfully pursued by Professor Millar, at Glasgow. I admit the difficulties which encumber any attempt to bring the study of law within the compass of a course of lectures; and that it is not, perhaps, possible, by means of academical arrangements, to do all that might be wished, for preparing the young lawyer for the duties of his profession;

still I am satisfied, that were lectures r
universities by men of talent and assiduity
to give regular attendance, to perform st
frequent examinations, and to exhibit suc
igence, as the professors might see fit to
would speedily assume a new form, and t
dates be raised to a higher standard; whi
out from our academical establishments
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It is well known, that the medical facu
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whole stock of knowledge which they ha
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In the schools of anatomy and surgery,
dissecting rooms comes, in some measure
tions.

There seems to be a peculiar inconsist
tice of examination during the general p
tion, when it is considered, that, though
from all the details of teaching, while th
the several professors, they are subjecte
afterwards, when they become candidat
professional establishment. It would, as
of all parties much better, were the m
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ularly during the whole course of his instr
the person examined would find himself
knowledge, and the examiner would be b
its extent, and to bring it forth to advanta

I now proceed to make a few observati
partment of professional education, as i
visions of the island. These remarks app
byterian as well as to the Episcopal con
Church.

Considering that the main object conte
ment of universities, was the proper educ
that, since the remotest times, the heads

persons employed in carrying on the work of instruction, have themselves been in holy orders, it cannot but appear strange, that there should be so many defects in the methods which continue to be pursued for qualifying young men for the sacred office.

Taking into consideration, also, that theology comprehends so many important and difficult subjects; that many other departments of human knowledge are necessary to carry on the study of it with advantage, it is a matter of surprise, and of censure somewhere, that the appointment of regular teachers of theology, the method of teaching, the time allotted to it, and the attendance of students, should not have been brought under more strict and more definite regulations.

In both the ecclesiastical establishments of the kingdom, there is great room for improvement in the system of clerical education.

In Scotland, the students of divinity enter the professional course, after an attendance of four years at the classes of literature and philosophy. This course consists of lectures on theology, church history, and the study of Hebrew, with the other kindred languages of the East. It extends likewise through a period of four years; and if the attendance be interrupted, as sometimes happens, the term of theological study is protracted two years longer,—making in all a course of not less than six years. During two of these, however, the attendance may be irregular, the students being required to attend only for a few days each year. This irregular attendance is permitted by the ecclesiastical court, rather in consideration of the circumstances in which many divinity students are placed as tutors in families, or teachers in schools, than from any view to the encouragement of sacred learning.

This option of two years irregular attendance in the divinity hall, ought not to be the first two years after their entry; for during these years, they ought to be obliged to attend the professor of theology regularly, that they may have the advantage of being directed in their private studies, by the exposition of the subjects of theological study, the methods of investigating these, and the selection of theological books which they ought to peruse.

When this rule is not observed, and the young men commence their theological studies without such directions, they are left to themselves, as to their proper studies and the distribution of their time, as well as the manner in which they may be pleased to employ it; and it must be added, that the situation of tutors in families, and also of public teaching, must occupy the greatest part of their time, and unfit them for close or deep study during the rest of it. In every point of view, it is decidedly favorable to theological study, that the students be obliged to attend the professor, during the whole of the first two sessions, after they commence the study.

It must be noticed, also, as a defect in the method of studyin theology at the Scots colleges, that, during their long period of a tendance, no examinations take place on any of the numerous ar important topics to which their attention has been directed; whil the few professional discourses which, in compliance with the rul of the church, are delivered by the students in the divinity hall, they may, or may not, be prepared by those who read them, affo but a very equivocal and unsatisfying proof either of talent or i dustry.

Why then, it may reasonably be asked, is the business of a theo logical professor confined to giving a lecture one hour a day; an on a certain number of days only in the week. The academica office of the professor is to teach theology, and the obligations at tached to this office unquestionably demand, that he shall emplo as much of his time and labor as may enable him to teach it in successful manner. There certainly is no statute in our academ ical constitutions which limits the teaching of theology to one hou a day; and I know there are no such limitations in this university and the practice of the present professor which I am now to men tion is a sufficient proof of it.

In former times, it is well known, the professors of divinity here, did not confine their labors to so short a time; but occupied as much of it in lectures and other exercises as the purposes of a complete theological education required. The celebrated Bisho Burnet who was, several years, professor of divinity in this univer sity, set an example in his method of teaching which well deserve to be followed by all who fill such offices in universities.

Taking a comprehensive view of the subjects of study, he com pleted a course of theology in a certain number of years. He ap pointed also a series of exercises founded on the lectures to be ex ecuted by the students, and appropriated a certain part of the busi ness to each day of the week. To these he added certain evening exercises of great importance, by which he maintained a constant intercourse with his students, ascertaining the progress of each examining the theses that were to be impugned and defended, and encouraging them to propose their difficulties to him on the subject they were reading. But it is unnecessary here to mention particu lars. The detail of the bishop's plan of teaching will be found in the account published of his own life.

I have mentioned this plan of Bishop Burnet, when professor of divinity at Glasgow, as exhibiting a complete proof that the office of a professor of divinity, in those times, was one of great labor and assiduity: and it is with the highest satisfaction I state, that my much respected colleague and friend, Dr. M'Gill, the present professor of theology in this university, duly impressed with the de-

fective method of conducting theological education in Scotland, has made considerable progress in restoring the former system of activity and emulation, both by regular examinations and exercises on important topics of the lectures, and by others of a critical nature on passages of scripture in the original languages. But I shall do an essential service to the public in publishing the detail of his method of teaching, with which he has favored me. His example, I hope, will be followed by other professors of divinity in Scotland.

'The students of divinity in the universities of Scotland generally attend the theological class four sessions of college. In the university of Glasgow, their number is above two hundred, and the session consists of *six* months. The present professor of divinity divides his students into two parts, and forms of them a *junior* and a *senior* class. To each of these he sets apart a *separate* hour for instruction.

On the various subjects of the lectures addressed to the junior class, essays are appointed to be written during the session. These essays are given to the professor, who, after a few days, returns them to the students. They are then read in the class publicly by the individuals who composed them, and such observations as they severally require are made by the professor. In the selection of the subjects of these essays, he is guided either by their intrinsic importance, or by a consideration of the erroneous ideas which the students may be in danger of forming in regard to them. He also, for obvious reasons, varies the subjects in different sessions. He joins with these exercises frequent examinations on the subjects of the lectures; and sometimes, instead of recapitulating the topics of the preceding lecture, he requires the students to state them. During the last month of the session, every student of this class, delivers, also, before his professor and fellow-students, a homily from a subject which has been prescribed to him at the beginning of the session. For the delivery of these homilies, two days each week near the end of the session are appointed. On these, remarks are publicly made; and afterwards, he meets in private with each student, and gives him such instructions and admonitions as circumstances may require.

The second or *senior* division of the students of divinity, consists of students of the second, third, and fourth years of attendance. The course of lectures delivered in this division extends over three sessions. But, while all the lectures combined, form one general system, each session has such a part of the entire system as forms a whole within itself.

The students of this second division are in different stages of progress, and are *subdivided* into three parts; to each of which particular employments and exercises are appropriated. To the students of the *second* year, an hour on Friday, each week, is especial-

ly devoted. At that hour, essays on the lectures are read; exam inations are held on the subjects of the lectures; and such occa sional instructions as are suited to the progress of that division o students, are given.

The students of the *third* year, besides attending the lecture and occasional examinations on them, are examined once ever fortnight on a chapter of the New Testament. This chapter the translate successively from the original; and, besides being re quired to give a correct verbal translation, they are required t state the precise import of the passage, and to explain the peculia idioms and different phrases which may occur; the nature of th customs, or the places and opinions mentioned, or to which allusio is made; and the manner in which any difficulty or objection ma be removed. Sometimes, also, difficult passages of the Old Tes tament are mentioned a few days before the examination; and th students are required to state in their own manner the nature o the difficulties and their proper solution.'

The method of teaching which has been described, and whic occupies at an average *three* hours each day, has, for some years been tried in this university, and found productive of the happies effects. It has infused a spirit of activity, as well as of attentio to the lectures,—an attention formerly unknown here, or in any o the other divinity halls in Scotland. Into no department of study indeed, can this practical mode of teaching be more successfully introduced, than that of theology, church history, &c. After pass ing an active course of philosophical education, the students carr with them to those classes, a fund of knowledge, and what is stil more valuable, habits of reflection and study which greatly facili tate their progress in this new field of research. At this period too, their minds are less distracted by variety of studies, than a an earlier stage of their progress, whilst the subjects on which the are to be engaged are of a nature so highly important, as sufficient ly to excite their curiosity, and command their attention.

Why, I beg leave to ask, should the principle of activity be re laxed and habits of assiduity and research thrown aside, at th very moment when young men are entering on the studies whic are most closely connected with their future profession? Certain ly, if there be any good reason why students in the preparator classes should be inured to exertion merely to qualify them for en gaging successfully in their professional pursuits, it must appea highly absurd to allow them, just when these pursuits are to com mence, to shake off entirely all restraints of discipline, and to relin quish all habits of industry. The spirit of diligence and of scien tific research cannot be arrested in its progress, without manife disadvantage. When it does not advance, it loses ground,—whe it does not receive fresh life, it withers and dies; and nothing

more likely to hasten this decline, than a lazy, spiritless, deadening mode of studying theology;—without application, without object, without check or responsibility of any kind. With what spirit, on the other hand, or with what feeling of satisfaction, can a professor of divinity continue his lectures, when he, confessedly, knows nothing of the progress of the young men under his care;—has no means of ascertaining whether his statements and reasonings are fully understood by them, with what difficulties they have to struggle, under what misconceptions or errors they may labor, or even in some instances, whether they be actually in his class room during the lecture.

On every account, therefore, it is highly expedient that the active practical system of teaching which is followed out in the under-graduate course, should be continued in the divinity hall. In no department of life is the right conduct of professional study more important than in that of theology. At all times, has the christian divine many enemies to encounter, whose various attacks require a skilful use of all the armor with which learning and eloquence can supply him; and at the present day, in particular, he is called upon to oppose himself to the attacks of the infidel, the more undisguised assaults of perverted learning, and the bewildering arts of the unbelieving sophist. A good theological education is, under providence, one of the best safeguards of religion, morality, and social peace. A professor of divinity, moreover, has much in his power, even in the way of recommending attention to accomplishments of a secondary nature,—to eloquent composition and clear reasoning,—to a chaste and classical style,—to a warm and graceful manner; in a word, to whatever may enable the future preacher to reach at once the heart and the understanding of his audience.

With regard to theological education in England, I have few observations to make, because I know not that there is, in fact, any regular system of instruction by which a divine, under the episcopal establishment, is trained to the duties of his profession. In both universities, I am aware, there are a few lectures delivered by the divinity professors; but besides, that such means are far too limited to answer the purposes of a good theological education, there are no sufficient means taken to ensure a regular attendance in candidates for holy orders.

It is, indeed, admitted that, in the English universities, there is no professional education attempted in any one department. They are more schools of general preparation, whence the students go forth into the world, make choice of a profession, and begin in other seminaries a new course of education to fit them for it. Those who intend to pursue the law, proceed to the inns of court: those who mean to devote themselves to physic, repair to the hospitals of London, or to the lecture-rooms of our Scottish colleges; while

such young men as prefer the church, are left to seek the knowledge suited to their professional views, wherever they think themselves most likely to find it.

'In our universities,' says an author who has recently addressed the public on this subject, 'both law and physic have, equally with theology, their professors and lectures; but, in neither of these faculties, does any man aspire to practice, nor indeed will he be admitted to do so, till in another and exclusive school, he has abstracted himself from a general to a strictly professional and technical education. But for church candidates, where do we find a suitable and peculiar school? Where are we to send our sons to be trained for the arduous and responsible duties of the christian ministry: since, in most colleges, after the attainment of the first degree, none except fellows ever remain. As for the examination for deacon's orders, a few weeks reading in some dioceses will qualify a young man who has passed through college, and possessing ordinary capacity, to undergo it with the utmost ease. Something more in these days is required.'*

When we consider the importance of good education in clergymen, and the extensive and difficult subjects which that education embraces,—the whole doctrines of natural and revealed religion,—the various sciences connected with theology, as also the several languages of the east; without a competent knowledge of which, no man can be esteemed an accomplished divine;—it cannot fail to excite surprise that theological instruction in England should still be so loose and defective, and so unlike any thing that might have been expected from the piety and learning of the many celebrated men, who, from time to time, have adorned the national church.

These objections are not to be answered by the usual remark, that, notwithstanding the defects now mentioned, the learning and professional eminence of English divines, will not suffer in comparison with those of any other establishment. I am not disposed to lessen the reputation which has been conferred on that meritorious body of men; but, assuredly, if there be any connexion between professional education and professional distinction, it is our business to improve the former to the utmost of our power, in the full confidence of gaining a beneficial end. To men of great abilities, the aids supplied by mere systems of academical instruction are, it is owned, of comparatively little importance, and most of the theological writers, accordingly, to whom the church of England is indebted for her fame, were under no obligations to the wisdom or efficacy of their college studies. It is, therefore, by the good effects which an improved method of teaching would produce on the clergy at

* See An Inquiry into the Studies and Discipline adopted in the two English Universities, as preparatory to Holy Orders in the Established Church; by a Graduate, 1824.

large, that we must measure the utility of public institutions, and not by the individual exertions of a few men of genius who owed nothing to the established routine of education, but whose names are used too frequently to apologise for the defects of a system which cannot be defended on the ground either of reason or expediency.

That the learning of which the clergy of England are most accustomed to boast, is not the best calculated to secure professional usefulness, is readily admitted even by themselves. The author to whom I have already referred, very properly asks: 'What avails a proficiency in writing Latin prose and Greek verse, if accompanied, (and accompanied it often is and has been,) with the want of correctness, perspicuity, ease, and fluency in English composition? Few in a country, or indeed in a city parish, will be inclined to relish, or even competent to understand such accomplishments, (should they exist,) while all will understand and appreciate a correct, chaste, and graceful English style. How many young men, on entering the church, are deterred at once from composing their own sermons, owing to the difficulty, (arising from the want of knowledge or practice in the art of writing,) which they find in commiting their thoughts to paper. But as our school and college education is now conducted, where is the noviciate to learn the principles and practice of English composition? Where has he heard, or can he hear, explained and exemplified the science and method of sermon writing? Not at college, most certainly. If a young man has attained any facility or superiority in this, he must, too generally, be wholly indebted to his own good sense and unassisted endeavors. But is this dealing fairly or honestly with our youth? Is this strange and unaccountable negligence to be found in any other profession, or even in any common trade? The art of composition is one of no easy attainment; nor will a knowledge of Greek and Latin qualify their possessor for writing English, without careful study and constant habit, in endeavoring to acquire it.'

As the influence of our holy religion depends not a little on the character of the clergy, and the esteem in which they are held by the people among whom they minister, it is to be hoped that the great and good men who preside over the church of England, may be able to devise some method of improving theological education, on principles of economy and strict discipline. In many important particulars, the dissenters have set an example which deserves their attention. Candidates for the ministry among them are instructed with increasing care and success; and it is unquestionably a very singular fact, that the establishment of England, the largest, the wealthiest, and most influential body in the protestant world, has no regular, authorised plan for the education of their clergy.

IMPROVEMENT OF SCHOOL AND TEXT BOOKS.

[From Mr. Carter's Letters on the Free Schools of New-England.]

The success of our schools depends as much on the principle by which they are governed, and the school books, as on the personal and literary qualifications of the instructer. This is the sphere for useful exertion, and the source, to which we may look for the greatest improvements. The succeeding remarks, however, are exclusively confined to the subject of School Books and the general principles of communicating knowledge, or the Science of Instruction.

Defects in the state of school and text books, are less likely to be felt, because we have all been instructed from them, and our minds are formed upon them, as upon certain models. Reformation is on all subjects progressive. Even reformers themselves cannot, at once, shake off the many associations which obscure their judgement. And reformation, or rather improvements in the principles of instruction, are more slow and difficult to be made, than in those of almost any other subject. This is partly because the subject is one of intrinsic difficulty; but more because so many prejudices are to be encountered. Our prejudices, however, on this subject are all honest, for they are wrought into our very nature, from our earliest infancy; and they are the stronger precisely, because all acknowledge the subject to be of the utmost importance, and take particular care, that all should be taught according to the most approved and philosophical plan; that is, just as we ourselves have been taught. Every age and generation think, that they have just arrived at perfection. And they take care accordingly, that their children shall never relapse to the ignorance of their ancestors. This would be well, if they did not take almost as effectual care, that they should never be wiser than their fathers. But this is provided against with most pious care. The very best men of all ages, those, who can hardly find good enough to do, in this short life, to satisfy themselves would, with very few exceptions, be heartily glad to freeze or petrify the world, in the perfect and consistent form, in which they are about to leave it, lest a rash and wicked posterity should jostle it out of shape.

As the principles of religion, and the principles of instruction are more important than others; so they are proportionably well guarded against all innovation, even if it should be an improvement. Every change, therefore, in either of these subjects, especially, when fundamental principles are called in question, must

force its way against fearful odds. It must encounter all the deep and firm prejudices of early education,—all the authority and personal influence of our teachers,—and the almost overwhelming influence of the oldest institutions in the world.* Still every age does make some improvement upon the one before it. And though we may be insensible of the progressive motion, at short intervals; yet, at the end of a hundred years, we have left our landmarks far behind.

But besides these general and honest prejudices, which no one believes he possesses, yet all do possess; there are others, in the particular case in hand, which are not entitled to so much respect. In the case of school books, there are prejudices of ignorance and interest to be encountered. The mass of instructers in the primary schools, who have most influence in the selection of school books, had commonly much rather teach an old book, which they themselves have been taught, than be at the trouble of learning a new one. Indeed, so superficial has the education of most instructers of common schools been, that a new book is to them, a new subject. The particular form and words, in which the principles of any branch of learning have been expressed, and the principles themselves, are with them, identical; and if the words are varied, the principles are not recognised.

Could they be divested of all the prejudices, they imbibe from early education, it is believed the repugnance of the method, upon which school books are written, to the acknowledged principles and laws of the human mind, would be at once felt. Indeed, the whole range of text books for elementary instruction, is liable to the same remark. Since the inductive method of Lord Bacon, the sciences have undergone, and are still undergoing, an essential change. The object of pursuit, by the new system of logic, is more steadily kept in view, and facilities are added to the means of pursuit. Discoveries have, consequently, been made, which have quite transformed the whole circle of the sciences. The identity of some principles, which had been before considered different, has been established; and others have been separated, which had before been identical. Order has taken the place of confusion in all the sciences. Chemistry has declared independence of Natural Philosophy, and assumed the dignity of a separate science. Political economy has been added to the sisterhood, and, like all young children, bids fair to be the pet of the family.

*The venerable English Universities, 'Oxford and Cambridge', in the fine metaphor of Dugald Stewart, 'are immoveably moored to the same station by the length of their cables, thereby enabling the historian of the human mind, to measure the rapidity of the current, by which the rest of the world are borne along.' [*Ingersoll's Discourse.*]

Is it not astonishing, that, while all acknowledge the importance of the new method of interpreting nature, and adopt it in all their own pursuits, none yet seem to feel, that the same principles are equally applicable to communicating the sciences to others, or the science of instruction? The grand principles of instruction are much the same, they were before the time of Bacon; but the philosophy of Mind as well as Matter, has assumed another form. The elementary principles of the human mind are the same at six, at sixteen, and sixty. They exist in different degrees of strength and improvement at different periods, and they change their relative weight, as elements of a character; but no new power is created, precisely at the time, the learner throws off the thraldom of a system of discipline, calculated to impede, rather than develope the mind, and pursues truth in the most direct and natural way. Yet this would seem to be the inference from the fact, that a method of communicating knowledge is retained, which is acknowledged to be different, and if examined, will be found to be repugnant, to the method, the mind pursues, when left to make its own acquirements. All, who have attended in the least to an analysis of their own minds, at the different stages in the progress of their developement, must be conscious of having to unlearn, if it may be so called, most of the acquirements of youth. That is, they must break up the arrangement and classification of their knowledge, which have been made upon a method repugnant to the principles of the mind; and make a new classification upon the correct principle. This, all must do; whether they are conscious of it or not, who are destined to make much progress in knowledge. Although this is not so difficult a process, as might, at first, be imagined; yet, the powers of the mind must be somewhat paralysed in their developement, and checked in the acquirement of knowledge, by the change of important principles, in the method of acquirement. The advantage of taking the correct and philosophical method at the earliest age, and pursuing it without interruption or change, can hardly be estimated. This is an achievement, which remains yet to be made; and it is one, whose influence on the sciences, and the condition of mankind, cannot be distinctly foreseen.

The triumph of the inductive logic, although it is a cause, which has more changed the state of the arts and sciences, and consequently the whole face of the world, than any other, which has operated within the reach of history, is but half complete, till it is carried into the subject of education. The principles of the inductive philosophy should be as rigorously followed in education, as any other department of human knowledge. The school books, and we may add the text books of the colleges, are certainly not written upon the inductive method. And these are our instructers,

or the models, on which our instructers form us. The books to be sure have been written over and over again, in order to keep pace with, and incorporate the improvements and discoveries in the different sciences, of which they treat. This is well, and as it should be. But the essential principle, on which they are written, is the same through all changes. This is wrong, and what should be corrected. Improvements in arrangement, and in the manner of expressing the principles of the sciences, have, no doubt, been frequently made. Indeed, the books have brobably been carried to as great perfection, as they can be carried, without some more essential change in the principles on which they have been written. They are very well executed, upon a very bad plan. The reason to be assigned for such slow progress in the improvement of school books, in particular, is a mistaken notion of the purpose of a school book; and the fact, that there have seldom been brought to the task of elementary instruction, talents capable of comprehending, at once, the principles of a science, in their relation and dependence upon each other; and still less capable of analysing the powers of the young mind, to which the science is to be adapted. The books for elementary instruction, have been written or compiled, with a view to set forth the principles of the science of which it treats, in a manner the most philosophical to those who make the books, but with little or no reference to the young minds, which are to encounter them. The object of the education, which can be given in the schools of this country, or even the colleges, is not so much to give knowledge, as to develope the powers of the mind, and strengthen them for the acquirement of knowledge, at some future period. Every thing, therefore, even philosophical accuracy, if it is necessary, must be sacrificed to the single object of adaptation to the mind. It is of little consequence, what the study is, which the child or youth is put upon, if it be so managed, as to bring forward *all* the powers of the mind, in their proper and natural order. And when the mind has acquired some strength by discipline, and a just balance among all its faculties, its attention may be then turned towards the acquirement of useful knowledge, with a good hope of success. But impatient parents have estimated instructers, by their ability to give a smattering of learning in some branch of knowledge, rather than their ability to watch over and detect all wrong associations; and to preserve the balance essential to a well disciplined mind, by encouraging or repressing different faculties as the particular case may require. Perfection of education consists more in the harmony and just proportion of all the powers of the mind, than in the overgrown strength of any one. When the plan of a school book, or the ar-

rangement of studies generally, is such as to exercise but few or one of the powers, this takes the lead. It monopolises an undue share o energy, and becomes overgrown at the expense of some, or all o the other powers. The features of the mind become distorted and unless the deformity is corrected by the judicious instructe the effect will become permanent, and extend to the whole cha acter.

The inductive method applied to the Languages and Geography.

If Socrates was said to have brought philosophy from heaven Bacon may as truly be said to have infused it into men. The gen erations, that have lived between that prodigy of human intellec and ourselves, have acknowledged their obligations to him, and n doubt profited much by his instructions. But, it is apprehended his philosophy is not yet brought down to our comprehension, an carried thoroughly and effectually into all our intellectual exertions It is said, he felt that he belonged to a later age, than that, in whic he lived; and in anticipation of his increasing fame, 'bequeathe his name to posterity, after some generations shall be passed.' Perhaps this generation is the intended heir; and it is high time they had put in their claim to enjoy the inheritance.

There are no means, by which we may derive more advantage from his philosophy, and consequently render more honor to his name, than by applying it to the subject of education, or the sci ence of instruction. The applicability of his philosophy to this sub ject, has been, long since, acknowledged by high authority. And the distance between the acknowledgement of the principle, and the application of it, has not been greater, than was to be expected; especially, when we consider, that the application depended upon judgements warped by all the prejudices or 'Idols' of the mind formed under the reign of a different philosophy.

Mr. Stewart, sketching a system of logic, observes: 'Anothe very important branch of a rational system of logic, ought to be, t lay down the rules of investigation, which it is proper to follow i the different sciences.' And when, farther on, he tells us how t lay down such rules of investigation, he says: 'Such is the inca pacity of most people for abstract reasoning, that I am inclined t think, even if the rules of inquiry were delivered in a perfectl complete, and unexceptionable form, it might still be expedien *to teach them to a majority of students, rather by examples, than in th form of general principles.*† How far Mr. Stewart was able to over

* Stewart's Dissertation on the History of Philosophy. Part i. p. 94.

† Philosophy of the Human Mind. Introd. Part 2d. Sec. 2d.

come the 'Idols' of his own mind, and keep himself consistent with the principle above laid down, his book must decide.

There is a wide difference between the rules of inquiry, by which we are to proceed to the study of a science, and the principles of that science, after we have already begun to make acquisitions in it. But if the former should be taught *by examples*, the reasons are much stronger, why the latter should. It would be much easier to understand by a *maxim*, in what direction the science lies; than it would be to understand by the same means, all the particulars or facts of that science, when the inquirer has arrived upon the ground. *The mind does not perceive a general truth, till it has perceived the particular truths, from which it has been derived.* If any thing more than our own experience were necessary to settle this point, passages might be selected from various authors, to add the weight of their authority. But it is not the custom to question this position; and it is quite as little the custom to pay any attention to it. It is to this point, attention is now invited; in the hope it may have, not only a speculative belief, but a practical influence upon our principles and systems of instruction.

But this is dealing too much in generals; or falling precisely into the error to be controverted. To be consistent, a particular example must be taken, to illustrate what is meant by inductive instruction. I must even be so consistent, as not to give a definition. For unless our experience upon the particular subject has been altogether similar, there would be great danger of being misunderstood, or not understood at all; till an example explained the meaning, and then a definition would be unnecessary. After a few *examples* of the application of the principle, it will be easy for any one to make a correct definition for himself.

In selecting the example of languages, I shall probably meet more objections, and encounter more skeptics, than in any other example, which could be taken. But principles are always best tested by extreme cases. And there is no necessity for availing myself of the advantage of the happiest application I could select.

In our most approved schools, the method of teaching languages has been, to put into the hand of the pupil a grammar of the language to be taught; and require him to learn, as it is improperly called, the general principles of the language. This is done commonly at the expense of from three to six or twelve months' time, and a thorough disgust to the whole subject. This disgust very naturally arises from being kept so long, on what he does not in the least understand.* At the end of this time, if the teacher has

*To counteract in some degree, this baneful effect, artificial stimulants are applied. And these are increased to so intense a degree, as to produce a perfect phrensy in the pupil, to *seem* to have learned all, that could be expected from him.

been inflexible in his purpose, and the pupil not unreasonably stupid he will have committed to memory his grammar from end to end including all rules and all exceptions; to which he probably at taches equal importance. He may have fixed perfectly in hi memory, all the subtle refinements of all the philosophers, wh have spent their lives in studying the principles and anamolies o the language; but he has made but a small approximation to knowledge of it. This is studying the philosophy of the languag before the pupil is acquainted with the facts of it.

This system of teaching proceeds upon the supposition, tha the language was invented and formed by the rules of grammar Nothing is more false. A grammar can never be written till a good knowledge of the language is attained; and then, contrary to wha the pupil supposes, the grammar is made to suit the language Now why invert this natural method in teaching language to young learners? Must not the facts be learned, before they can be classed under general principles? What are the *rules* and *principles* which the pupil has *learned* at so dear a rate? They are no more than the verbal generalisation of *facts*. How have they themselves been formed? By the *experience* of those whose attention has been directed to the *observation* of the facts. They are abstract principles, the truth of which can neither be perceived, understood, nor believed, till some single instance, within the comprehension of the principle or rule, presents itself to the learner. And then he will perceive the fact in the particular case, long before he discovers its identity with the rule, if he is ever so fortunate as to discover it.

In learning the peculiarities of a language, which is but imperfectly known, the philosopher does not (although he might to much better advantage than a young learner) go to the grammar of that language; he selects the best authors and makes a careful analysis of their sentences; and thus discovers, what constructions are common with other languages, and what are peculiar to the one to be learned. At the *end* of his researches, he forms into general principles, the result of his experience. The rule, therefore, is obtained by a patient induction of particular instances, and is put in words, not to teach us anything, but to classify what has already been learned, and put it in a form convenient to be referred to as occasion requires. As we assort our papers by examination of

Under the strong excitement of *hope* or *fear*, the young learner will spare no pains to accomplish his task. But it must be remembered, that under the influence of these motives, the object is only to convince the instructer the task is accomplished. And oftentimes the craftiness of the pupil will invent some more expeditious method for this purpose, than really to possess himself of the knowledge he is expected to gain. These short cuts to the approbation of the instructer, it is feared, are not always consistent with that ingenuousness which it is so desirable to cultivate in the youthful heart.

each particular one, and put together the *letters* of correspondence, the promissory *notes*, and the *deeds* of conveyance; and then put on each collection a label, with the title of the class, as a convenience for reference only, not because that alters the nature of the papers on which it is put.

The analogy pursued illustrates my meaning farther. He, who has committed to his memory all the principles of a language, before he has had experience of the particular cases, from which those principles have been derived, will be no wiser in respect to his language, than he, who should collect the labels of his papers, and take this for a knowledge of their nature. The abstract principles of a language give no more adequate idea of the particulars, from which they have been formed, than the labels give of the nature and obligation of a *note*, or a *deed*, before those papers have been separately and individually examined.

The *facts* of a language must be first learned, and they always are first learned, all the arrangements to the contrary notwithstanding. The rules in the learner's memory are perfectly useless, till he has learned the particulars or facts of the language; because he cannot till then understand them. And when the pupil is learning the language by experience, he will make rules for his own convenience, precisely as a philosopher does; and always make them as general as his experience will allow. As he makes farther progress, and becomes acquainted with more of the minutiæ of the language, he will extend the comprehension of his rules, till they become as general as the nature of the subject admits. Then the exceptions will be noticed and classed under the rules, to which they are exceptions.

Is not this natural and philosophical; and if so, why do we pursue a method diametrically opposite to both? What then is the business of the instructer; and must every pupil learn the language under all the disadvantages, which we should encounter in attempting to learn a dead language, without grammar or instructer? The business of the instructer is, to lay before his pupil those facts which are easiest perceived. Such are the meaning of the words, and the construction of the simplest sentences. And as a knowledge of the words is attained, and the formation of the sentences understood, a principle of limited comprehension is established in the mind of the pupil, and sentences of more difficult construction are put in his way.

The duty of the instructer is more arduous; because he must know by observation, precisely how fast his pupil generalises, in order to arrange the difficulties he is to encounter. The duty of the learner is easier, and his success more certain; because he knows, if his instructer is not ignorant or careless, that he is com-

petent to solve, of himself, every difficulty which occurs. Whereas, when he proceeds to sentences and books at random, with grammar and dictionary in hand, he does not know, when he encounters a hard passage, whether it is capable of a satisfactory answer, or whether it is a subject of debate among commentators. This doubt discourages perseverance; whereas, by the other method, he knows he *can* succeed, and the responsibility is his own, if he fails. Greater difficulties, by far, are presented to the learner, in attempting to apply a principle so much more general, than his experience, than would occur in classifying the facts, only as fast as he learns them.

If this principle of teaching languages is understood, its application will be easy for instructers. A perfect developement of the principle cannot be here given. It is merely suggested for consideration; and if it is found correct, philosophical, and consonant to the laws of mind; the detail will more properly follow. It may be remarked, however, on leaving the topic, that there are several methods of communicating the elements or obvious facts of a language, without even the sight of a grammar. That will come to aid in classifying the facts and knowledge of the language; but those facts and that knowledge must be attained, before they can be classified. The instructer may construe literally a few of the easiest passages or simplest sentences, which can be selected, and the learner be required to go over the same sentences by himself, till he has learned to construe them without assistance. Or, perhaps a better method would be to select some easy and interesting story, perfectly within the comprehension of the pupil, so that the interest of the piece may aid in the recollection of the words. When a very few short stories of this kind have been learned in this manner, the child may be put to construe similar pieces alone, to the instructer, who will serve as a dictionary for the words which have not occurred before, or are not remembered. The interest of the piece confines the attention, and the meaning of the words is acquired with astonishing rapidity. The necessity of making sense of the story, will oblige the pupil directly to *observe*, that as different terminations, or certain particles are used, different shades of meaning are expressed. And he will form his experience in the observation of facts into rules, as fast as he has such experience.

Another method would be to put an easy book, with a perfectly literal translation, into the hand of the learner, and require him to learn a portion to recite without the translation. This gives a knowledge of the words, the first thing to be attained in the acquirement of a language. The particles, from their frequent occurrence, will be soon learned. And as they are supposed to be known to the pupil, the meaning of them may be left out of the

translation. In the same manner, common words may be dropped from the translation, care being taken to always give the meaning of a new word, or a new sense of the same word, till it can be fairly supposed to be learned. In this manner the inflections will be better understood than in any other method. For the learner sees, at once, the different terminations, and the different relations of the words expressed by them.

During this stage with the pupil, the grammar and dictionary may be at hand; but they are to be consulted as a means of learning the lesson, and not to constitute the lesson itself. After an intimation from the instructer, that the grammar contains information, which may be useful; and perhaps after a reference to it, by way of example to the pupil, let him consult it just as often as he pleases, and no oftener. If he does not find any aid from it in learning his lesson; or feel the want of something of the kind, it will be of but little use, to drive him to it. But instead of wearing out some half dozen grammars, before he is advanced to any other book, and absolutely loathing the sight of one, it will be the very *dearest* book on the table. He will find all the inflections and rules laid down in the book so consonant with his own experience in the language, that he will be very much disposed to adopt that arrangement for the classification of his own knowledge.

I take geography as another example, to illustrate what is meant by *inductive instruction*. It is selected, not because it affords any peculiar advantage in the application of this method of communicating knowledge; but because it offers a convenient opportunity to remark upon the leading principles, upon which books on the subject have been written; and to acknowledge its increasing interest and importance as an elementary study. Children are very early capable of describing the places, mountains, and rivers, which pass under their inspection. And they commonly do it with an enthusiasm, which shows, how lively an interest they take in the subject, and how deep an impression the peculiarities of new places make upon them. When they have learned, by actual *perception*, a few of the features of the face of the earth; at a period a little later, they are capable of feeling a similar interest in forming a *conception* of places, mountains, rivers, &c. from representation and description. Then commences the study of geography.

This is a branch of learning, which has been more neglected than its importance deserves; whether we consider the value of the knowledge obtained, or the adaptation of the study, to the early developement of the mind. As commerce and letters multiply the mutual interests, relations, and dependencies of distant places, some knowledge of those places becomes almost indispensable to all professions and classes of society. Till within a

few years, there has been but little order or arrangement in th books, which could be studied as text books. Facts and descri tions were selected, with no very great care or attention to th importance, and with less if possible to their authenticity. The materials were thrown together upon some plan adopted from t caprice of the author, but with not the least reference to the learn Consequently, the whole subject has been almost totally neglecte So much depends upon the *manner*, in which knowledge is prese ed to the understanding of the learner. But within these few yea improvements have been made, in the elementary books upon th subject, which have brought it into notice. It is now very generall though I am far from believing very successfully, taught in ou schools.

The manner of teaching it by question and answer, which is th manner adopted by the books most approved at present, is objec tionable; although it enables the young learner *to seem* to have a quired great knowledge of the subject. The questions direct th learner to the most important facts, no doubt, but that is of litt consequence to him, so long as he is unable, or not prepared t comprehend them. He connects the question and its answer b some artificial association, and will repeat a passage, containing important information, with verbal accuracy. To the hearers, wh have already acquired a knowledge of the subject, and who attac to the words, a definite and correct meaning, the child seems t possess an astonishing fund of knowledge. But it is apprehended that many a child, who thus delights and astonishes his parents, an gains his book and instructer great renown, would make as sorry figure on a more careful examination, as the child mentioned b Miss Hamilton. After answering to all his questions, and giving an accurate account of the statistics of Turkey, on being aske where Turkey was, (a question not in the book,) replied, '*in th yard with the poults.*'

The improvements in our school books upon this subject, hav consisted in greater attention and accuracy in the collection o authentic and important facts, and in a more consistent arrange ment of them. But by far the most important improvement is th introduction of maps. The principle of using maps, deserves th most unqualified approbation. For when the object and meanin of a map are thoroughly understood by the pupil, it aids him to con fine his attention, and form a conception of the relative magnitud of continents, mountains, and rivers, and of the relative situatio of places, better than the most labored descriptions, without suc aid. But the principle of arrangement, upon which all the book upon this subject have been written, I beg leave to object to decid edly and strongly. The pupil is presented in the outset, with a ma

of the whole world, reduced to the size of a hat crown. In connection with this, he is directed to read a description of the largest rivers, mountains, and seas; and also to commit to memory some account of the character and manners of the principal nations. Perhaps he will now be required to learn the amount of exports and imports of the most commercial nations to the accuracy of a farthing.

Some, not content with presenting the whole earth to the first and single glance of the young learner, and, as if determined to push the absurdity of the plan to the utmost, have given the whole solar system to the child, for his first lesson in geography. This is called setting up landmarks, and getting a general knowledge of the subject; but so far from that, in my view, it is getting no knowledge at all. It is only a confusion of words, without any definite meaning attached to them.

The subject is begun precisely at the wrong end. If it is addressed to the understanding of the young learner, this arrangement seems to presume that he will take a deeper interest in, and better comprehend the general features of the world, embracing its largest mountains and rivers, and the characters of nations of whose existence he has never before heard, than of the roads, hills, and rivers, of his own neighborhood, and the boundaries of his own town, county, or state. Besides, he can get no adequate idea of the magnitude of the largest mountains and rivers in the world, except by comparing them with the mountains and rivers which he has seen, and of which he has formed some definite idea.

In forming a conception of a distant mountain or river, which we have never seen, we proceed precisely as we do in forming a conception of any other magnitude. We fix upon something of the *same kind*, which is known, as a *unit of measure;* and then compare and discover the relation of what is known, with what is unknown. So the child could form some idea of a mountain twice as high as the hill before his eyes; or he could form a tolerable conception of a river, three times as long and as broad, as the brook which runs before his father's door, or the river, he may, perhaps have seen in a neighboring town; but tell him, at once, the Himmaleh mountains in Asia, are 25,669 feet high; and the river Amazon, in South America, extends 3500 miles in length, and empties into the ocean on the equator, from a mouth of 150 miles wide, and I am much mistaken, if he forms the least conception of what he is told.

The correct plan for an elementary geography, would begin nearer home, with a description, and if practicable, with a map of the town, in which the young learner lives. Or if that is too particular for general use, the instructer may supply the description; and the map begin with his own county, or state, in which he will

of course be most interested. From this he may proceed to hi whole country or kingdom, and thence to more general divisions o the earth. The map will of course be reduced in its scale, an the descriptions grow less and less minute, as the places are farthe removed; or from any cause, are less interesting. If I have re marked with freedom on the state of books upon this subject, it ha been without reference to persons, and with the single motive o inducing those authors to whom we are already indebted for man improvements, to examine their plans, and see if one cannot b adopted, more consonant to the principles of the youthful mind.

SECONDARY EDUCATION.

[From Jullieu's Questions on Education.]

Intellectual Instruction.

[In our 7th and 8th numbers, the first series of questions—tha which embraces primary education,—was given in *detail*. We proceed to the second series, consisting of questions on *secondary* education, as conducted in preparatory schools, in academies, and in minor colleges, whether managed by individuals or by the community.

Under this head, we select, for the present, the subdivision entitled Intellectual Education. We prefer retaining the form of questions as given in the original; because, though no answer is expected in our case, the ideas present themselves with more force in their interrogatory aspect.]

101. At what age nearly do children pass from the elementary to the secondary schools?—What may be remarked on this transition from one stage to another?

102. Are the children subjected to a preliminary examination on the objects and results of their primary studies, before entering the secondary schools?—In this case, what are the attainments demanded?

103. How many classes are ordinarily embraced in a secondary school?—What is the order of their succession?

104. What are the objects of instruction generally embraced in the sphere of secondary education?

105. To what extent, in these schools, is carried the study of the ancient languages—of the modern—of drawing—of geography—of history—of physics—of the different branches of natural history?

106. What methods of instruction are adopted in the different parts of study, separately, in detail, and in succession?—In some branches are particular methods, combining simplicity and perfection, followed? What are these methods?

107. Is care taken to adapt the methods of education and instruction to the character of youth in general, and to the capacities or dispositions of the pupils in particular?

108. Is regard paid in instruction to these essential data?

1. What appertains to a natural developement, and to the particular dispositions of individuals:
2. What relates to the modifications which may be determined by the influence of external circumstances.

109. What are, in every course, the classic or standard books consulted or applied to by the instructers, and put into the hands of their pupils?

110. Are the same lessons given in course, to all the pupils collectively; or are the pupils sub-divided into small sections, according to their ability and their progress; so as the better to adapt instruction to the case of each pupil?

111. Are the pupils examined, with care, and individually, at certain seasons of the year? How are these examinations conducted? May not discouragement and disgust be sometimes produced in industrious and diligent pupils—less favored by nature—who see themselves often surpassed by others less studious, but better endowed?

112. Is the memory much exercised; and in what consists the kind of exercise?—Is a rational, rather than a mechanical memory, formed?

113. Is the understanding much exercised, and by what means?

114. How is the imagination cultivated?—Are pains taken to excite it in children, who have but little of it, and to regulate it with those in whom it is too lively and ardent?

117. For how many years does the complete course of study in the secondary schools last; and, generally, from what age to what age?

118. Do all the parents of the vicinity send their children to the given school; or do some prefer to have them educated abroad, or to employ private tutors in their own houses?—Which usage, in these respects, is most prevalent?

119. What difference may be remarked between the secondary schools which exist in the different parts of the district?—Between those of the capital, and those of the smaller towns, and also of the villages?

121. Are pains taken to make study agreeable and interesting to children,—and by what means?—(We should not limit our efforts

to giving instruction under the form of amusement. For children would contract the habit and feel the need of always amusing themselves: they would neglect, or contract an aversion to serious occupation or studies.)

122. Are reflections cherished on the use which children shall be able to make of the knowledge imparted to them; and are they made to appreciate the usefulness for which they shall thus become qualified?

123. Is the first place assigned to the knowledge which is most important for practical life?

(May not the sciences which ought to have a real use in the social relations be disignated somewhat as follows?)

1. Reading, writing, and the fundamental rules of grammar:
2. The familiar use of the native language, and of some modern languages:
3. Arithmetic and book-keeping:
4. Geometry, and the elements of mathematics, some notions of mechanics applied, and of technology:
5. Drawing —the true universal language:
6. Mathematical, physical, civil, and political geography, particularly applied to one's own country:
7. The elements of physics and chemistry, sciences which are inseparably connected with all the useful arts:
8. The elements of natural history, and especially of mineralogy, and botany:
9. Some notions of practical *hygiene*, to govern health:
10. Some elementary notions of astronomy and meteorology, by which to know the state of the heavens, to appreciate the variations of climate or of temperature, the use of the thermometer and the barometer:
11. The fundamental principles of political economy, and domestic economy, connected with the history of the country, the knowledge of its constitution and laws, the rules and prescribed or convenient forms for the management of civil acts:
12. Singing, and music, generally, which give mildness to the manners and the character.

(Is it not just to say that common education, in which may generally be observed many deficiencies and contradictions, cultivates solely a mechanical memory,—neglects the judgement and reason,—gives a false and dangerous direction to the imagination,—causes the loss of precious time, for the study of Latin and Greek, taught too exclusively, and by a method too slow,—treats drawing as a mere matter of choice, instead of regarding it as an object of the first necessity, applicable to all the mechanic arts, to all occupations, to all conditions of life,—gives only superficial views in geog-

raphy,—and in the natural sciences disdains hygiene, and the study of the physical frame, political economy, and the study of social relations, the knowledge of the rules and forms of civil contracts, so necessary in every condition? Is not historical instruction superficial and barren, in as much as it inculcates epochs, and dates of insignificant facts, mostly relating to ancient nations, without appreciating the train and connexion of events, the moral qualities and the conduct of the principal personages, the distinctive characteristics of true and of false glory, the duties and the rights of man, considered by turns in the family, and in the state, as individuals, as subjects, as citizens, as public functionaries: in fine the causes of the rise or of the fall of states, of the happiness or of the misfortunes of individuals and of nations?—Is not common education defective and incomplete in these different points of view?)

124. Has there been any attempt to reduce the time assigned to the study of Latin and Greek, or even to retrench entirely that part of purely civil education, to replace it, by studies better adapted to the wants of every individual, as destined for public, commercial, military, or other pursuits?—In this case, what inconveniencies, or what advantages, have resulted from such attempts?

125. Are children exercised in writing to their parents, or their young friends—are they made to feel the utility of forming an epistolary style?

126. Are they taught book-keeping, by single and by double entry?

127. Are they made to begin the study of the laws of their country, in the secondary schools, or at home, before the age of sixteen or seventeen years?

Secondary education in its connection with the preceding and subsequent stages.

139. Is secondary education actually treated as connected with superior (or university) education, so as to furnish an adequate preparation for the youth who are to advance to that stage.

140. Is the actual organisation of secondary instruction established on a basis sufficiently broad, solid and complete, to provide the children of the middle classes with all the knowledge, which is indispensable to them, and to the exercise and developement of all their faculties?

141. What usually becomes of the young persons of the different classes of society, on their leaving the secondary schools; and what means have they to indulge a disposition to cultivate and mature the instruction they have received?

General considerations and miscellaneous questions.

142. Is the method still the same for training children at the age of from nine or ten to sixteen or seventeen? Or rather in what con-

sists the difference which may be found between the old and the new method of education?

143. What are the improvements or the changes introduced, within ten years, in secondary education?

144. What are the inconveniencies which may be pointed out in the system actually followed; or what are the essential advantages which appear to result from it?

145. Of what reformation and improvement does it seem susceptible?

146. What are the most approved works on secondary education; or rather what are those which parents, teachers, and professors, are most in the habit of consulting?

SUGGESTIONS TO PARENTS.

Moral and Religious Education.

[These suggestions have hitherto embraced an article in each of the leading departments of education. Physical training, therefore would naturally be the subject of remark in our present number; if physical, moral, and intellectual culture, were to be attended to in rotation. This order, however, is not indispensable; and the vast importance of moral cultivation, would, at all events, justify us in postponing an article on any other branch.

Instead of a regular essay on our present subject, we would offer to the attention of parents, and of mothers especially, the following important queries from the valuable pamphlet of Jullien, from which the preceding article is translated. They will be found, we think, better adapted to excite direct and deep attention, than the most laborious or elegant composition of a more formal and didactic character. These paragraphs will be read with much greater interest, after reperusing pages 481 and 482,—No 8, of this Journal.]

67. What is there deserving of notice in the moral and religious instruction given, whether in school or at home, to children at the age of from nine or ten to sixteen? In what does this instruction consist?

68. What pains are taken to give children just ideas of their duties towards their equals, of their obligations to society, of the opinion which man may form of the deity, of the manner in which we may and ought to honor him?

69. Are children accustomed to say their prayers, regularly, morning and evening?

70. Are prayers said by the father of the family, by the head of the school, by one of the children, or by each in turn? Are these prayers always the same; and, in this case, do they not degenerate into forms, (so to speak,) worthless,—which produce but a feeble impression on the heart?—Or do they convey familiar instruction adapted to children, embracing the circumstances of their daily life, a knowledge of their character, their conduct, their wants?

71. Are children's feelings excited against certain nations, against persons of different religious belief or opinions, against certain professions?—Or is there inculcated on them a universal benevolence towards men, and even towards animals; and what means are used for this purpose?

72. Since courage is necessary in all circumstances of life,—in misfortune, in sickness, &c. as much as in battle,—how are children inspired with courage, without teaching them to hurt? How are they taught to suffer patiently?

73. Is death presented to them under a frightful aspect, or as an inevitable passage from this life to another more happy? (Are the two fundamental points of the existence of God, and of a life to come, considered as salutary and necessary stays for human weakness, and as the indipensable bases of morality?)

74. Are pains taken to keep away from children books which might awaken in their minds dangerous doubts, before reason and conscience can be sufficiently fortified to resist doctrines immoral and irreligious?

75, How are just ideas of true honor engraven on the minds of children? How are they made to cherish a good reputation?

76. Does each one receive a little book of conduct, in which are inscribed good or bad marks, which are taken up at the end of the week or the month?

77. Are they made to keep a little journal, in which they write, themselves, every evening or every morning the principal results of their employment for the preceding twenty-four hours? What advantages arise from such or similar methods of giving children habits of order, tending to fortify their morals?

78. What ideas about money, are commonly given to children? Are they made to consider it as the chief object of the desires of man, or as a means to assuage misfortune and exercise beneficence, as a kind of equivalent for the services which are rendered us,—or under any similar aspect?

79. What habits of economy are inculcated on children, to induce them to account for the little sums given them for voluntary expenditures?

80. What particular pains do parents and teachers take to develope moral sensibility in children; so as, at the same time, to keep

it from degenerating into weakness?—Have they often presented to them the unhappy victims of human injustice,—the subjects of misfortune,—the sick in the hospitals,—the unfortunate parents of a numerous family which they can hardly support by their labor,—working people reduced by the fatigues of excessive exertion,—innocence oppressed,—merit persecuted or despised,—old age, infirm, indigent, abandoned? (What good influence on the developement of the heart and of moral instruction, is drawn from visits to the habitations of the poor, to workshops, hospitals, prisons?

81. How is avarice in children prevented, or how corrected?)

82. Do parents bestow charity through the hands of their children—Or do they furnish them occasions of doing beneficent acts?

83. How are children induced to be generous without ostentation? How are they accustomed to the exercise of gratitude? (Are they made to perceive how disgusting and shameful a vice ingratitude is?)

84. How are children taught to respect the property of others, and to conceive an aversion for theft?

85. How are they encouraged to speak the truth,—how penetrated with a holy abhorrence of lying?

86. How are they inspired with a contempt for envy, raillery, detraction, and pride?

87. How is the tendency to idleness corrected or eradicated?—What success is obtained in getting them to love labor?

88. How are they taught to be moderate in pleasures, and patient in pain?

89. What is the internal *re'gime* of secondary schools?—Is the discipline mild and paternal, or harsh and severe?

90. What faults are most common; and what kinds of punishment is it customary to inflict on children, according to the nature of the fault and of circumstances? What moral effect do these chastisements seem to produce?

91. Are pains taken to remove vices, prejudices, foibles,—to moderate and direct the passions,—to awaken moral sentiments,—to form habits,—to cultivate conscience and reason?—Is use made in this view of all the means suggested by the daily circumstances of life, which might conduct to the desired end?

98. Are children early trained to the exercise of thought and reason, applied to the direction and examination of their conduct, in such a manner that when they shall have come to youth and mature age, they may easily do without an external guide, in whatever concerns them, and trust themselves to their own judgement?

99. Does instruction produce a harmonious developement of the soul, under the influence of a moral and religious conviction, internal and deep, which constitutes conscience,—of solidity of principles

adopted by conscience and reason, as rules of conduct,—of force of character and of will, to resist the temptations of the passions, and the contagion of bad examples,—in fine, of external conduct,—of social acts and relations?

(All these things ought to be taken in connection, and in harmony, that the child may, of his own accord, be essentially virtuous and happy.)

100. Are children made acquainted, (as wisely suggested by Basedow,) with virtue on its good side and vice on its bad; that they may become truly good men, and not hypocrites,—that is to say that they may not have merely their own interest in view, when they do good? (The study of morality ought to be through the medium of a parental instruction on good and evil, right and wrong; that children may not act virtuously from a fear of their superiors or superintendents, or the mechanism of habit, but from the result of their own conviction.)

REVIEWS.

The Class Book of American Literature; consisting principally of selections in the departments of History, Biography, Prose Fiction, Travels, the Drama, Popular Eloquence, and Poetry: from the best writers of our own country. By JOHN FROST. Boston, 1826. 12mo. pp. 312.

THE multitude and variety of reading books which have appeared within the last five years, seem to some persons to be a subject of regret, rather than of congratulation. To us this affair presents itself in a very different light. We rejoice that the progress of improvement in education is such, that neither parents nor teachers are disposed to be satisfied with books which have little to recommend them, but the rhetorical finish of the pieces they contain, or the celebrity of the authors from which they are compiled.

Indeed, it seems to us that one of the most decided advantages in education, which are now offered to the young, consists in the character of their reading manuals. A compiler does not think it sufficient that he has embodied merely a volume of 'lessons:' he feels bound to present a book which shall prove instructive and interesting. To be intelligible and useful, are now the leading objects in such works; and 'readers,' or 'class books,' are to be

had, in almost every department of knowledge which can be rendered serviceable to the purposes of life, or which can be made interesting to the feelings of the young.

The most rigid advocate of economy in education would, we presume, admit the propriety of a literary reading book in all our schools—even in the humblest. A moderate relish for literature, as one of the refined pleasures of life, which preoccupy the mind, and fortify it against the solicitations of lower enjoyments, we are glad to see aided by such works as the one before us. It will not only —if we do not over-rate its merits—be a useful book in schools, but a pleasant companion for moments of leisure in families of every class. But it is a work peculiarly suited to enliven the fireside winter hours of our agriculturists, and at the same time silently elevate the tone of intellect and of taste.

As a book for schools this manual will be very acceptable both to pupils and teachers. It abounds in interesting subjects; it is characterised by a peculiar simplicity; it is replete with patriotic associations; and its literary style is, in most cases, of the happiest character for a favorable influence on the taste of young readers.

The style of elocution likely to be produced by this work, is that which every teacher would wish to cultivate in his pupils; but which the formal and sometimes unintelligible language of most reading books, tends very much to prevent or destroy. A natural, chaste, and animated manner of reading, will never be wanting; if the pieces used for practice are such as the learner understands and relishes. The selections which compose the present volume, are, in this respect, well adapted for good reading. They relate mostly to familiar or striking events in American history; and where the pieces are more general in their character, their animation and freedom still sustain their interest to the feelings of the young.

On the propriety of restricting his book to selections from American authors, Mr. Frost has the following judicious observations.

'The compiler is by no means desirous to exclude from our schools the classical writers of great Britain. He only wishes to have our own presented to the young collectively; and when it is remembered that there is a period during the liberal education of every youth in this country, in which he is required to devote himself exclusively to the classical writers of Greece and Rome; and another, in which the more accomplished scholar acquaints himself with those of France, Italy, and Germany; while a man can scarcely claim to be intelligent, who is not well acquainted with the history and literature of England; it will surely not be thought unreasonable, that there should be one stage in the course even of common education, in which the brightest periods in the history and the finest specimens in the litera-

ture of our own country, should claim the exclusive attention of the young by being presented to them in a daily reading manual.'

Of the merits of this Class Book as a specimen of American literature we have not room to say much. This is a point in which it is not always an easy matter to satisfy the general taste. Some adult readers may be disappointed at not finding in it their favorite passages in favorite authors; and some will perhaps forget that the compiler's object was to select matter suited for young scholars in common schools. Pieces of an elevated literary character it is not difficult to find; but such pieces are not always accommodated to the standard of juvenile minds.

For our own part, we think that, even in this respect, Mr. Frost has been very successful. His extracts are rich and varied: they form a volume which we should not feel reluctant to see current in other countries besides our own, as an acknowledged specimen of our national literature.

STRICTURES ON MURRAY'S GRAMMAR.

(Concluded from page 560.)

We come next to the Verb.

Murray's definition of a verb is, 'A verb is a word that signifies to *Be*, to *Do*, or to suffer; as I *am*, I rule, I am ruled.'

We infer that *to Be* does not mean *to do* or *to suffer*; and to *Suffer* means neither to *be* nor to *do*.

The first part of the definition, *to Be*, then, does not express any action according to Mr. Murray. We shall not go back to the origin of this complex verb which, more than any other, has puzzled grammarians; but merely state that the verb *to be* and its variations are fragments of *five* different verbs, not one of which signifies *abstract being*, and all of which govern objects like active verbs. We shall endeavor to show that *be* is an active verb, and has all the properties of one, and if we establish this position, it will be unnecessary to say any thing about the action of other *neuter* verbs.

If *to be* does not imply action, what is the difference between being and not being?

If *to be* does not imply action, how happens it that *Do not be a fool*, and *Do not act the fool* mean the same thing?

If *to be* does not allow *action*, how can a person *be active*?

God said 'Let light *be*.' Either nothing was done in obedience to this command, or what was done is expressed by the word *be*.

'*To talk* of industry is not *to be* industrious.

To talk of industry is not *to act* industriously.

To be brave is *to act* bravely.

Be diligent, be active, be moving, if you would be, or become or get rich.'

In all these cases *Be* expresses at least the exertion of vitality, and it is no objection to say that this exertion is confined to the agent, for a hundred other verbs are said to confine their action to their agents.

To Be means to exist, to live, to have a state or condition: so say our best dictionaries. Either of these defining words may take an objective case after it.

To exist a miserable existence.

To live a good life.

To live as well as speak the praise of God.

To live a fool and die a sage.

To exist a man and die a beast.

To be a slave to one's passions.

It will not do to say that 'to exist a man' or 'be a slave', means to exist *like* a man, or be *like* a slave. For to be like a slave and to be a slave are very different things.

Murray says 'the verb *to be* through all its variations has the same case after it as that which precedes it.'—And after giving some examples, he adds 'By these examples it appears that this *substantive* verb has no government of case, *but serves in all its forms as a conductor to the cases*, so that the two cases which are the *next* before and after it, must always be alike.'

As the possessive case does not follow the verb to be, as its object, and as the nominative and objective are always spelled alike, Mr. Murray mistook the objective for the nominative. Under his XIth rule of syntax, his examples are all of *pronouns*, and only prove, what is the fact, that our pronouns once had no distinction of case. Had he given one instance of a *noun* before and after the verb, we should have taken it to illustrate our position. But let us see what he says farther on this subject.

'Perhaps this subject will be more intelligible to the learner, by (*his or my?*) observing that the words in the cases preceding and following the verb *to be*, may be said to be in *apposition* to each other, that is, they refer to the same thing, and are in the same case.'

Op-position would have been more correct as they are on opposite sides of their '*conductor*.' What he means by calling the verb *to be* a conductor of cases, I cannot imagine. He should have

called it a *conjunction* at once; for, if the case before and after this verb *mean* the same thing, this similarity of meaning is caused by the verb, and they are united by it, and it is properly a conjunction.

The verb *to be* expresses action; but this action usually affects only the individual that exerts it. Hence most, if not all the objectives of this verb refer to, or mean the same person or thing as the nominative. But this is not peculiar to the verb to *be*, for 'John *plays* the fool' is a parallel case, to 'John *is* a fool' and it is just as correct to say, that the word after *plays* is in apposition with John as that the word after *is* is so. But *plays* is an active verb, and *fool* the object of it, as much as *game*, would be.

'John is a slave to his wife' means that he *submits* to all the servility she imposes on him.

In the sentence 'John is made a slave by his wife,' Murray would call slave an objective case, governed by the participle *made*, although the structure is the same as before; as the transposition of the words will show. 'John is a slave, made by his wife;' *made* being what he would call a participial adjective, *qualifying* the word slave, and not governing it.

Had Mr. Murray conjectured that the word *in apposition* was an adjective, he would have come nearer the truth, for we have found no case where an adjective may not be substituted for the latter noun. Thus, 'John is a fool' is equivalent to 'John is foolish,' 'John is a slave,' means 'John is slavish'. This, however, will not apply when an adjective precedes the latter noun, as, 'John is a foolish man;' in which case *man* is the object of the verb *is*. If any more proof of the activity of the verb *to be* is required, let it be sought in what Murray calls the Imperative mood of *to Be;* as, Be quick, be diligent, be active, be still, be furious, &c. in all which cases *be* means *act*, *go*, *do*, &c. We think there is no need of our attempting to prove that verbs which mean *to suffer* mean also *to do*, we shall therefore pass on to Murray's division of verbs into *Active*, *passive*, and *neuter*.

He says 'A verb *Active* expresses an action and necessarily implies an agent, and an object acted upon, as 'I love Penelope'.

We believe that every verb in our language will answer to this definition. The example he gives leads us to remark that the action is often *intellectual* merely, and not *physical*.

'A Verb *passive* expresses a passion, or a suffering, or the receiving of an action, and necessarily implies an object acted upon, and an agent by which it is acted upon; as, 'Penelope is loved by me.'

If Penelope *suffered* in consequence of being loved by Mr. Murray, it does not follow that *all* who are loved suffer. Nor, if this sense of the word suffer is objected to, does it follow that, because

he loved Penelope, she *suffered* or *permitted* him to do so. But let us see what he calls a neuter verb.

'A verb neuter expresses neither action nor passion, but being, or a state or condition of being, as I *am*, I *sleep* I *sit*.'

But our author says 'In the phrases to dream a dream, to live a life, to run a race, to walk a horse, to dance the child, the verbs certainly assume a transitive form, and may not in these cases be improperly denominated transitive (that is, completely active) verbs.'

By this rule we can take his examples of neuter verbs cited above, (and he selected the best for his purpose that he could find,) and place a noun after them. I am a *being*, I sleep *myself* easy, I sit a *horse* well. These therefore are active verbs, and we assert that every verb in the language will as readily admit an object after it. Indeed, an ingenious philologer,* who ought to be better known in this country, has pretty clearly proved that every verb may have *two* objective cases after it.

But let us return to the Passive Verb. '*A passive verb is conjugated by adding the perfect participle to the verb to be.*' So this *neuter* verb becomes *passive* by having a participle placed after it, and a passive verb, like an active one, 'necessarily implies an agent and an object acted upon;' this if true would be all we claim for the verb *to be*.

'*Penelope is loved.*'

Is Penelope the agent and the object too? then Penelope loves herself; but, under the definition of an active verb it was said '*I* love Penelope.' What then is the difficulty? plainly this, *that loved* is not a verb. 'Penelope *is* or *exists*,' how does she exist? loved or hated as the case may be. Loved is an adjective and qualifies Penelope, as any other adjective would, and it is just as correct to say the phrase 'Penelope is *sick* or *old* or *ugly*' is a *passive verb*, as to call 'Penelope is loved' one. The perfect participle is a mere adjective, and the whole Passive voice is built upon a misconception of its nature and use.

If any thing is wanted to complete the climax of absurdities, it may be found in the fact that, although the perfect participle, whose action is *finished*, may, with the verb *to be*, form a *passive* voice, the present participle whose action is *going on* is allowed no such privilege. '*Penelope is loved*' is a *passive* verb, and expresses a passion, or suffering, but '*Penelope is loving*' expresses no passion, no suffering, although by the custom of civilised society she is obliged to keep her passion to herself, and suffer the consequences. We

* William S. Cardell of New-York, author of an Essay on Language, and The Elements of English Grammar, two works to which we refer our readers for much important information in regard to the structure of language.

are very much inclined to think there is more passion and suffering in this case than in the other; and the verb *to be* in all its moods and tenses may be joined with the participle in *ing* as well as with that in *ed*.

To Verbs, says our author, belong Number, Person, Mood and Tense.

One would think that the plural of verbs was spelled differently from the singular, but this is not the case. What Murray calls the plural is always the same as his first person singular, in all his moods and tenses, and in some moods it is the same as *all* the persons singular.

I love	We love	I loved	We loved
If thou love	Ye love	If thou loved	He loved
If he love	They love	He loved	They loved

His imperative mood allows no variation even in the second and third persons singular.

His potential and subjunctive moods confine their variation to the *auxiliary* as he calls it, and the *principal* verb is unaltered.

What then is meant by the *number* of verbs? We answer '*the number of the Pronouns!*' And it is *just as* correct to attribute number to verbs as to *adjectives*, and Mr. Murray, to have been consistent should have called all adjectives that qualify plural nouns, plural adjectives. In the following sentences we have yet to learn why the adjective is not as much plural as the verb, or rather why the verb is not as much singular as the adjective.

If *I* be *sick*.
If *We* be *sick*.

It is just so with the *Person* of Verbs. Mr. Murray having previously determined that pronouns had three persons, was resolved to find corresponding variations in the verb.

First Tense.	Second Tense.
I love or love I.	I loved or loved I.
Thou lovest or lovest thou.	*Thou lovedst* or lovedst thou.
Thou love or love thou.	Thou loved, or loved thou.
He loves or loveth or loves or loveth he.	He loved, or loved he.
He love or love he.	
We love or love we.	We loved, or loved we.
Ye love or love ye.	Ye loved, or loved ye.
They love or love they.	They loved, or loved they.

The above are all the *variations* of the verb love in all its voices, moods, tenses, numbers, and persons; for the place of the pronoun, and the assistance of other words, have nothing to do with *love*.

The first person singular and three persons plural, admit no more

variation for *person* than for number. The unchanged verb is also used in the second and third persons singular of the subjunctive and imperative moods of Murray.

The terminations *est*, *eth*, *s*, *ed*, and *edst*, once had a meaning, which was, *add* or *join*, and there is no more propriety in adding them to the second and third persons singular than to the other persons. Indeed, if the clergy when they left off worshipping in Latin, had not retained a love for such phraseology as differed from that of the *vulgar*, the terminations, *est*, *eth* and *edst* would have fallen entirely into disuse in these two persons, as they did in all the others, for the time has been when *eth* was the common termination of all the persons. It is the duty of grammarians to prevent or correct such anomalies; but the first English grammarians were clergymen; and so far from rejecting the absurdity we complain of, they not only admitted it as canonical, but dignified it with the appellation of the *solemn style*, in opposition to the *regular* style in general use. They should have invented a *solemn* style for the other persons also.

That *eth* was once a termination common to all the persons may be seen in the following extract.

'Hevene and erthe he *oversieth*
His eghen *bith* full brighte,
Sunne and mone and all sterren
Bieth thiestre on his lihte,
He wot huet *thencheth* and huet *doeth*
All quicke wihte.'

In consequence of its difficult utterance, *Eth* soon after changed into *et*, *it*, *ed*, *en*, *es*, *est*, &c.

In Sancta Margaretta, which is supposed to have been written about the end of the 12th century, we have

Old ant yonge *I preit* ou oure soleif for to lete
Thenchet on God that yef ou wit oure sunnes to bete
Here may *tellen* ou wid wordes feire ant swete
The vie of one meidan was *hoten* Maregrete, &c.

Do, *did*, *ed*, *et*, *eth*, &c. are from the same source, hence our custom of omitting the *ed* as a termination when *dtd* precedes the verb; thus, I fear-*ed*, I did fear, that is, *I* (*join* the sensation of) *fear*.

We have *ed* as a common affix in our language, and the idea of *time* is no more connected with it than with *ish*, or any other termination. In such cases as crooked back, crook backed; the *connective ed* may be joined to either word and the same meaning retained.

We intend that these remarks shall bear upon the subject of *tense* as well as *person;* for, if it be true that the terminations we are considering primarily meant *join*, and have no reference to *time*, *number*, or *person*, having been used indiscriminately for all tenses,

persons and numbers, the system of tenses must necessarily fall with the rest of the absurdities raised upon a misunderstanding of these terminations.

We hesitate not to say that all the system of moods, tenses, numbers and persons, is got up to accommodate these few relics of ancient usage. Could it be proved that *est* in connection with *thou*, and *eth* or *es*, in connection with *he*, exclusively, served any useful purpose, it would be very proper to protect and perpetuate them by grammatical laws. But instead of being useful they are worse than useless, for they serve to perplex and enslave the English speaker or writer. In *our* opinion grammarians should pay no respect to *usage*, except so far as it is consistent with the nature and analogy of the language whose laws they pretend to expound. Any unnecessary departure from strict analogy, simplicity or uniformity, should be met and discountenanced, if of modern origin, and stripped and discarded, if muffled in the venerable cloak of *usage*. It is this *usage*, which has always been the firmest friend of *abuse* in religion, politics and letters, but we trust the day has come, when truth shall no longer bow down to *usage*, *authority*, and *expediency*, that 'holy alliance, which have always said to her 'thus far shalt thou go but no farther.'

'Mood,' says Murray, is a particular form of the verb showing the manner in which the being, action, or passion is represented.

We cannot better illustrate the subject of moods and tenses than by giving a specimen of each, and referring the reader to the verb *Love*, of all whose *real* changes or forms, we have given a paradigm in a previous part of this essay.

Infinitive Mood. Love.

Murray calls *to Love* the verb, and the infinitive, but *to* has nothing to do with the verb, except to govern it as it does other nouns.

Indicative Mood.

Present. *I love.* —— this is our present.
Imperfect. *I loved* —— this is our past.
Perfect. *I have loved.* —— *I have* is the present tense of another verb, and *loved* a participle or verbal adjective qualifying whatever *I have*.
Pluperfect. *I had loved.* I had is the Imperfect tense of *I have*, and *loved* a participle as before.
First future. *I shall or will love.* I shall or I will is the present tense of other verbs, and *love* the infinitive of Mr. M.
Second future. *I shall have loved.* *I shall* is the present as before.

Have is the infinitive. *Loved* the participle qualifying whatever I shall have.

Mr. Murray has tried hard 'to mark time more accurately,' but the German grammarians have beat him, for they have *four future tenses.*

Imperative Mood.

No name to the tense! Let me love. That is 'Permit thou me to love.'

Let thou, is the imperative of *to Let.*

Love thou. We have given this already in our first tense.

Do thou love. Do thou is the imperative as Murray calls it of the verb *do.* Love is the infinitive already given.

Let him love. Permit thou him to love.

Let us love. Permit thou us to love.

Love ye or you. Our first tense.

Do ye love. Do ye is the imperative of *do. Love* the infinitive of *Love.*

Let them love. Permit thou them to love. *Let thou* the imperative as before, and *Love* the infinitive.

And all this for the sake of creating an Imperative mood for the verb Love!

Potential Mood.

Present. *I may or can love.* I may or can is the present tense of may and can. *Love* is the infinitive of love.

Imperfect. *I might, could, would, or should love.* I might, I could, I would, and I should are the imperfect of may, can, will, and shall. *Love* is the infinitive as before.

Perfect. *I may or can have loved.* I may and I can are present. Have is the infinitive, *loved* the participle of *Love,* and qualifies whatever I may or can have.

Pluperfect. *I might, could, would, or should have loved.* I might, &c. are the imperfect of may, &c. *Have* is the infinitive and *loved* a participle, qualifying whatever I might have.

Subjunctive Mood.

Present. *If I love.* Already given without *if* in my first tense. *If* has the same to do with *love* as *do* has in the sentence *Do thou love,* for *if* means *give* or *grant.*

Even Murray himself, who assigns six tenses to the subjunctive mood, says all the rest are similar to the corresponding tenses of the indicative mood.

We think this *exposé* must satisfy any fair mind that an attempt has been made to force the English language to wear forms that were made to suit some foreign tongue.

In a Latin Grammar it may be necessary to express by an Eng

lish phrase the meaning of the numerous variations of Latin verbs, but it is monstrous to pretend that all such phrases are tenses of our own verb.

Have, *shall*, *will*, *may* and *can*, have words in English which mean the same thing, thus,

I have wine loved. }
I hold wine loved. }

I shall love. }	I will love. }
I ought to love. }	I intend to love. }
I may love. }	I can love. }
I am permitted to love. }	I ken to love, that is }
	I know how to love. }

Will the lovers of numerous tenses allow that these synonymous phrases are also tenses of the verb love? We might amuse ourselves at the expense of the *names* of Mr. M.'s tenses, and moods, and their total inapplicability, but we shall content ourselves with merely remarking that there is no shadow of reason for any distinction of moods, and no other reason for even *two* tenses than can be found in a difference of termination which has no reference to time, we mean the addition of *ed* to the simple verb. What is called the present tense expresses future time *as well as* Mr. Murray's *phrase* does; and what is called the past tense does the same. We say *as well as*, because we believe that the verb of itself never expresses *any time*, but this must be looked for in the context.

I sail *now*, or *to-morrow*, or *always*.
To be *yesterday*, *to day*, and *forever*.
Would he be satisfied if I *went* next week.
Will he be satisfied, if I go next week.
If I please next year I *can* visit you.
If I *pleased*, next year I *could* visit you.

I loved and other verbs in *ed* have been so long connected with words expressing past time, that we attribute this expression to the verb, but to *I loved* we may without impropriety add the strongest expression of present time, that words can convey, as, I loved *this very* instant, or *this present* moment; and the present tense will make good sense with the strongest expression of *future* time. *I am*, the very queen of present tenses, affords one of the best expressions of future time; as I am to go, I am to love, &c. Here we leave the verb, regretting that the want of room obliges us to leave so many other points untouched. We could bring the highest authorities for all we have advanced, but if these remarks cannot recommend themselves to the good sense of every intelligent mind, authorities will never force conviction.

Adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions and interjections remain to be considered. We shall be brief in our remarks upon them.

Adverbs.

'An adverb is a part of speech joined to a verb, an adjective, and sometimes to another adverb to express some quality or circumstance respecting it, as He reads *well;* A *truly* good man; He writes *very correctly.*'

Suppose, instead of 'He reads well,' we put 'He lies well.' *Well,* we are told, is an adverb and qualifies *lies.* Suppose then we put *crooked* or *sick* instead of *well.* No one pretends that they are adverbs, and yet they are just as much so as *well* is.

Truly, correctly, and all other adverbs ending in *ly* are compound adjectives, the *ly* being a contraction of *like.* This double adjective, when separated, reads thus, 'a good man *like true* (men.)'

Very is an adjective and means *true.*

He *very* writes *like correct* (writers.)

However odd such a resolution of the sentence may seem, we believe, it will admit of no other, and even Mr. Murray allows that the *ly,* is a contraction of *like.* The other adverbs are either adjectives or contracted phrases, all of which are ingeniously explained in Horne Tooke's 'Diversions of Purley.'

Prepositions.

'Prepositions serve to connect words with one another and to show the relation between them. 'He went from London to York;' 'She is *above* disguise.' 'They are supported *by* industry.'

We venture to say that from this definition no body could pick a preposition from the mass of words which form our language. Prepositions *connect* words! 'He went *from* London;' *from* connects him with London. 'He went *to* York;' *to* connects him with York. Or perhaps he means that *from* and *to* connect London and York! 'She is *above* disguise,' and yet *above* fastens disguise to her. 'They are supported *by* industry.' 'They are supported *without* industry.' In these two cases no doubt *by* and *without* connect *industry* with *them. From, above,* and *without,* in the examples just adduced, show strongly that *no relation* exists between the nouns.

The fact is, all the prepositions, like the adverbs, may be found among the other parts of speech, retaining their original meaning.

From is a noun and means *beginning.*

To is a noun and means *end.*

Above is an adjective qualifying *she,* or a noun meaning *on top of.*

By is our verb *Be,* and the sentence above may be thus expressed. 'Be industry (or let industry be) they are supported.

Without means, *leave out* or *be out.*

So much for Mr. Murray's definition and illustration of preposi-

tions. Those who wish for more information in regard to them may consult the author referred to under adverbs.

Conjunctions.

'Conjunctions are chiefly used to *connect* sentences or words.'

Conjunctions then, we suppose, *connect* sentences as prepositions do, but show no 'relation between them.'

We are really puzzled to know in what this *connection* consists. In the case of prepositions, no connection of mere words or sentiments was expressed; and no sooner are we told that conjunctions connect, than we are told that they are divided into two sorts, copulative (that is *connecting*) and disjunctive (that is *separating*.)

The word *and* is the verb *add*, and *add* may always be substituted for it; thus, two *and* two are four, two *add* two are four. Hence Murray does well to give as an example of copulative conjunctions 'He and his brother reside in London.' His other examples are,

'I will go *if* he will accompany me.'

'You are happy *because* you are good.'

If is the verb *give* (or grant) which was formerly spelled *gif*; and the sentence means '*grant* he will accompany me, I will go.'

Be-cause means the cause *be* or *is* (for *be* was once used where we now use *is*.) The sentence would then be, 'You are happy, *the cause is* you are good:'

But, independent of the *meaning* of the words *if* and *because*, we need only transpose them to show that the connecting or disconnecting of sentences is no part of their business; for put the first clause of the sentence last, and the conjunction ceases to connect, thus,

'*If* he will accompany me, I will go.'

'*Because* you are good, you are happy.'

'The conjunction disjunctive (happy contradiction) serves not only to connect and continue the sentence (as the copulative did) but also to express *opposition of meaning* in different degrees.' Of course this means that copulative conjunctions do *not* express opposition of meaning. The examples are,

Though he was frequently reproved, *yet* he did not reform.

They came with her *but* went away without her.

Let us substitute a copulative for these disjunctives.

He was frequently reproved, *and* he did not reform.

If he was frequently reproved, *yet* he did not reform.

They came with her *and* went away without her.

Yet is entirely unnecessary after *though*. It is another spelling of the word *get*; and *though* is a verb, meaning precisely the same as *if*, viz. *grant* or *give*.

But has two meanings exactly opposite. Sometimes it means *except* or *leave out*, and sometimes *add*. When it has the latter meaning, *and* may take its place. When it means *leave out*, *without* may be substituted for it. Murray does not appear to have known this fact, and therefore has given *but* to *add* or *join*, as an example of *disjunctive* conjunctions. *But* to *add* was originally spelled *bot*, and our verb *to boot*, that is to *superadd*, is the very verb.

We have not room to explain all the conjunctions in this manner; *but* we have examined his own examples in order to prove that Murray did not understand their nature or use.

Interjections.

No *word* can properly be called an interjection. Most of Murray's interjections are verbs in what he calls the imperative mood, such as lo! (that is, *look*) behold! hush! hail! We cannot better express our sentiments than by transcribing the remarks of Horne Tooke on this subject.

'The dominion of speech is erected upon the downfall of interjections. Without the artful contrivances of language, mankind would have nothing but interjections with which to communicate orally any of their feelings. The neighing of a horse, the lowing of a cow, the barking of a dog, the purring of a cat, sneezing, coughing, groaning, shrieking, and every other involuntary convulsion, with oral sound, have almost as good a right to be called parts of speech as interjections have. Voluntary interjections are only employed when the suddenness or vehemence of some affection or passion returns men to their natural state, and makes them for a moment, forget the use of speech, or when from some circumstance the shortness of time will not permit them to exercise it.'

Thus we have finished our examination of Lindley Murray's Grammar, a work which, to the disgrace of both Americans and Englishmen, is almost the only text book used in their schools. If we have exposed its inconsistencies and errors so as to induce those who have taken them upon trust, to examine them more carefully, we may one day be rewarded for our trouble, by seeing a more rational system of grammar introduced into our seminaries of learning.

RETROSPECT.

PROGRESS OF EDUCATION DURING THE YEAR 1826.

Before entering on the preparation of another volume, it may not be improper to review the ground over which we have passed, within the last twelve months. From such a retrospect much encouragement may be afforded to minds interested in the progress of improvement, and useful instruction may be derived for the guidance of our own future efforts, in the undertaking on which we have entered.

Many facts highly important to the interests of education have been developed by the attempt to establish a periodical devoted exclusively to the subject; and not the least important among these is this, that the public mind seems fully prepared for the existence of such a work as the Journal. Many doubts were entertained on this point, by sincere friends to our undertaking. These may now be considered as fairly set at rest.—It is merely to state a fact of some consequence when taken in connection with the progress of public sentiment on the subject of education, that we mention the unexpected extent of the patronage which the Journal has received. If the subscription list of a periodical may be taken as a safe test of estimation, the reception of this work, during its first year, will appear more cordial than that of any which has hitherto laid claim to the patronage of the community.—The approbation with which our imperfect endeavors have been received, it would be ungrateful to pass without our best acknowledgements.

In this review of our progress, our chief object is to retrace the more important circumstances which have been developed in our successive numbers. Before entering, however, on such a review, it may be worth while to revert to the early stage of our work and the objects then proposed to our readers. The leading aim at the outset of the Journal was *the collection of facts*. A success commensurate to reasonable expectations, has, we trust, been attained in this department. At all events no pains have been spared to obtain an extensive range of useful and practical information of the existing condition of education, at home and abroad. An anxiety to do adequate justice to the sources whence our intelligence was derived, may, with other causes, have occasionally led us into too copious detail; and in this respect we hope to improve the practical character of the Journal, by a more strict selection of matter, so as to present whatever is purely and indisputably good, and omit whatever we are satisfied is not fully adapted to promote the progress of improvement.—The mass of matter, too, which has accumulated to an unforeseen amount, makes condensation, as well as rigid selection, an urgent duty.

The second aim of the Journal, was the diffusion of *just and adequate views of education*. Some essential aid, it is hoped, has been rendered to this object. Our endeavor has been to exhibit the whole subject, as much as possible, in its relations and dependences. Physical culture has been inculcated as the basis of all education; and we have been more full and more urgent on this head, from the previous neglect of it, which was prevalent; and we do not hesitate to express our

impression that the more this important subject is brought within the range of observation and experience, the larger will be the proportion of time and attention devoted to it; and that the public mind will not be satisfied, till, in all the stages of education, this branch is treated as a leading object in human improvement.

Moral education we have endeavored to present, with that prominence which it naturally possesses in connection with the constitution of man, and the instructions of revelation, as well as the best interests of human society. That in this part of education, we have been able to present so little that corresponds with the nature or the value of the subject, we deeply regret. Physical and intellectual culture are desirable things; but man can be truly happy with very little of either. It is not so with moral education; embracing, as we think it must do, the power of religion, to give it not only efficacy but existence. It is, we confidently believe, in moral education, that the greatest discoveries and improvements are yet to be made. But we fear we shall be slow in our progress, till parents who have directed an earnest attention to this subject, come forward and aid us with the results of experience:—we say *parents;* because this business is and ought to be in their hands. And no matter how correct our *theories* of physical, or intellectual, or even religious education, may be; if the influence of example in parents, and brothers, and sisters, and school companions, is practically running counter to improvement, in those unguarded and unnoticed words and actions and habits, which are tacitly forming the real and predominating character of the young. *Mothers* especially need more of the spirit of attention to this unspeakably important part of their duties and their responsibilities.—*It is* only by the attentive observation of facts, however, that the requisite knowledge in this department can be developed; and—as has more than once been urged on parents—the improvement of parental and domestic education must emanate from them. Our second volume will we hope, contain more of their contributions to this branch of our labors.

One subject to which the attention of our readers was to be turned is yet untouched; we mean that of *personal education*,—a branch which embraces whatever is practical or valuable in all the rest; because it does or should develope the means by which every human being may co-operate with all the instruction he receives from others, or by which he may direct his own personal efforts, in the improvement of his condition and character, as a sentient, an intelligent, and an immortal being.

Here certainly, an apology is due for neglect. But when the magnitude of the subject to which the work is devoted, and the very limited assistance which has been received by the individual who conducts it, are taken into consideration; the omission will appear in its true light, involuntary and unavoidable.

Early and elementary education were to be the principal objects of our efforts; and here, we believe, our readers will acquit us of inattention. The growing importance of this topic in public estimation, has rendered accessible a vast quantity of interesting and useful matter. Our selections here have been very copious; because we are still of opinion that early culture is that in which reformation is most needed, and in which it can be most rapidly and successfully promoted.—The cultivation of health, of moral principle, of intellectual habits,—all

become important exactly as we diminish the number of years which have been previously lost by neglect or perversion; and the best services which in future Numbers we may render to the business of education, we shall always consider to be those which aid the parent or the teacher in training the infant and the child.

In tracing the progress of improvement in education at home and abroad, during the first year of this work, one of the most prominent objects of attention is the establishment and the rapid advance of *the system of infant schools*. A new world has here been opened to the survey and the efforts of benevolent minds. Two years ago a proposal to establish schools designed for infants of two years or eighteen months, would only have excited ridicule or astonishment. But such schools are now in successful operation in our own country as well as abroad; they have more than realised the highest expectations of their founders, and have brought the invaluable blessings of early education, in its best form, within the reach of the poorest classes of society: they have thrown open the doors of improvement and of happiness, to the human being in the very earliest years of his existence. They embrace in natural and happy combination the leading features of physical, intellectual, and moral education. Health, amusement, instruction, purity, truth, kindness, piety, are not left to scatter into separate and independent departments; demanding each a distinct attention, and a different arrangement. All these branches of culture are brought together, as the requisite ingredients of improvement and happiness.

The following passage is from the last publication on infant schools, (Goyder's Manual.)

Let an observer 'repair to an Infant School, and witness the' effects 'produced by these establishments. He will there see order, cleanliness, and innocent cheerfulness prevail. Infants of eighteen months, to five years of age, "happy, because they are good; and good, because they are happy;" obedient to the voice of teachers, submissive to their parents, and grateful to their benefactors; their little hearts expanding with the love of their associates, and receiving with eagerness so much of useful knowledge as their tender minds are capable of bearing. Let the reader put a question to any of these little ones, and he will be answered modestly, unrepressed by the chilling sensation of fear; or if the question be too complex for the understanding of the little innocent, an explanation will not fail to be solicited by the child himself.

To those whom heaven has blessed with a competence, to those who are the parents and heads of families, and are of necessity acquainted with the numerous wants of infant children, as well as the numerous evils and accidents to which they are exposed, this statement will not be made in vain. A visit to any Infant School will soon convince any reasonable person of the vast importance of the subject; and while the benevolent mind can there view the interesting nature of the employments, it may form some adequate idea of the extensive benefit which is likely to accrue to the rising generation from these most important establishments.

It has often occurred to me, that the system of instruction pursued in Infant Schools for the very poor, might be equally effective to the children of tradesmen and mechanics, and even the rich and opulent themselves.'

Schools of this description are multiplying with uncommon rapidity in England. In our own country they are established in New-York and Philadelphia; they have been partially attempted in Boston; and the spirit of the system is

introduced in many schools of the primary order in various parts of New-England. We hope that the leading improvements connected with infant schools, will soon be adopted in all schools where the tender age of the children makes it desirable to have them under the care of females; and that in our cities there will be found one in every neighborhood, that this great engine of improvement and happiness may be accessible to every parent who takes an interest in the early education of his children.

The education of females, was to constitute a leading topic in the numbers of the Journal. Many interesting accounts of the prevalence of more enlightened views on this subject, have been presented to our readers; and several encouraging reports of actual improvement have been given in detail.

Among these is the establishment of separate *schools of a higher order for the education of females*. In New-York and Boston these institutions have produced effects which are likely to have an extensive influence not only on the present but on future generations. They derive a peculiar value from this circumstance, that, being conducted on the system of mutual instruction, they put their pupils in possession of practical qualifications for teaching in the family or in the school. The superior style of education which they impart is also a highly gratifying characteristic of these schools, and especially when we advert to the prospective influence of their pupils, as destined to the most important of all stations in society, the situation which entrusts them with the care of forming the minds of the rising generation.

The latest intelligence from the school in New-York, speaks in terms highly favorable of the condition of that seminary; and our recent annual exhibition in this city, gave public and decided testimony to the success of the institution here, in evincing the efficiency of mutual instruction, and the propriety of furnishing the female sex with the higher opportunities of improvement.

This department, however, we are conscious needs more of the attention which, in such a work as ours, it may be naturally expected to receive. If, in this branch of the general subject there has been a comparative deficiency, of matter, the blame must be laid on the diffidence--we would not say the inattention--of those of the sex whose opportunities and abilities have furnished them with the means of aiding improvement in this important sphere. We would use this opportunity of again soliciting the assistance of those whose attention has been directed to this subject, and who, as wives and mothers, have felt the inadequacy of the current style of education considered with reference to preparation for the most arduous and the most valuable, though the least observed, of human duties.

Our own impression is, that even the most recent and the most liberal efforts for the education of females, are not at all commensurate to those which are in daily progress for the benefit of the male sex. Not that we would complain of the female mind being confined to lower branches or to fewer studies. This disparity is every day becoming less. This is not the ground of complaint. The objection to the present style of female education is this, that while improvement is making so rapid a progress in the instruction of the other sex, in accommodating itself to the actual wants of man, and carefully selecting those branches which are to be of practical use in life,—the same course has not been taken in female education. We have been content with adding a few more branches, a few more years, a little more study. But instead of selecting the subjects of instruction so as to give

preference to whatever might be useful to woman as a daughter, a sister, a wife, or a mother, we have been merely aiming at a higher standard of education, without any distinct reference to the duties, the privileges, or the influence of the female sex.

We would not object, however, to the highest possible standard of education for females. Even on the most selfish view of the subject, it is well that woman should be qualified for the intelligent companion of man, in all his pursuits, especially his intellectual pursuits But the progress of reformation should observe a natural order. The indispensable branches of education should come in for our first attention. Take the case of a lady who is capable of accompanying her husband in his whole range of reading in the modern languages—perhaps in the ancient; and yet is ignorant of the means of prolonging or improving the health of her infant, or is so feeble, from a neglected constitution, as to be compelled to meet most of the demands of daily active duty with an apology which shuffles them off on some other person of firmer nerve. Surely nobody will affirm that, in such an instance, female education has been rightly understood or administered.

Above all, female education is extremely defective in regard to moral culture—with reference, we mean, to the power of influencing the human heart. The art of shedding sweetness on human life is not innate in any mind: it is the result of extensive observation, and of skilful management. And this is true especially of the talent for swaying and moulding the infant mind, and giving it that complexion which it may retain for life,—giving it such a bias as shall operate like an irresistible impulse toward pure happiness and every noble and virtuous trait of the human character, when fixed and elevated by religion.

Every female should know enough of the art of teaching to qualify her for the important task of preparing her offspring for admission to primary or infant schools, and to cooperate with the efforts of the teacher in the business of early instruction, if not in all subsequent stages of education.

Most of our female readers are well aware that these objects are not provided for as they ought to be, in the present arrangements of female education; and the first step towards definite improvement would perhaps be a fair and full statement of the deficiencies of prevailing methods in these and similar particulars. But it is females that are best prepared to do justice even to this early stage of the business; and we would urge it once more on their attention. If the Journal is to be extensively useful in aiding the improvement of female education, it will be so in consequence of the efforts of female minds. Contributions of this class will, we earnestly hope, be more numerous than heretofore in our pages.

To aid *practical* and *explanatory instruction* was an object of particular attention in the plan of the Journal. This we have endeavored to do more by reporting its effects, than directly inculcating its necessity; and it has been one of the most encouraging symptoms of general improvement that has offered itself to notice since the commencement of the Journal, that there is so prevailing a dissatisfaction with those methods which merely cultivate a mechanical memory, and have little or no salutary influence on the understanding. Rational and intelligent views of instruction seem to be rapidly gaining ground; and the developement of the mind is more generally based on the principles of the inductive method. The discipline of the mind, rather than the mere acquisition of knowledge, seems an object of growing attenti on. Explanation is becoming as it ought to

be, the principal business of the instructer; and teachers are not so much disposed to be the tame servants of their books, but are making use of them more as mere instruments put into their hands to aid them in effecting their objects. That all these features of improvement are visible in many schools, it is unnecessary to remind those of our readers who have perused the intelligence contained in the successive numbers of the Journal.

The attention of school committees, as well as teachers, is becoming more decidedly directed to the character of instruction; and in several counties and towns in New-England, there has been a thorough reformation effected within a few months. To aid this spirit of improvement will in our future numbers be a more distinct object of our endeavors than heretofore. Nothing can be more important to this country than the advancing of common education to that pitch which American institutions demand, and which they so much favor.

In close connection with the last mentioned topic is *the formation of schools and seminaries for teachers.* This is the most effective as well as the most expeditious method of improving education in any of its departments, and especially in that where many teachers stand so much in need of being taught—as is too much the case with instructers in district schools, if not in others. On the subject of the training of teachers we have not, we trust, been deficient in the proportion of matter. But our future efforts will we hope receive a more distinct character, from the establishment of a seminary for this purpose in our own state. The principles and practice adopted in this institution may be rendered highly serviceable to the business of instruction, throughout the country. They will be fully stated as soon as the commencement of its operations shall furnish opportunity.

During the past year, the preparing of instructers for the duties of their office has been a prominent object of public attention. Much is now doing towards this object in various quarters. In New-York, a model school has been instituted for the training of teachers in the details of the monitorial method. In the practice of instruction much good may thus be effected. Efficiency and skill in the management of a school are important qualifications in an instructer. More than this, however, is needed: enlarged views of the whole subject of education—an acquaintance with the mind and its habits—elevated ideas of the office of instruction—a wide range of useful knowledge—high intellectual character—a pleasure in instructing—and a perfect facility in imparting knowledge—are essential to the qualifications of any instructer. The highest range of human accomplishment should be that which is possessed by the teachers of youth; and it is by elevating the requisite standard of improvement in the office of instruction, that regular and extensive and permanent results are to be obtained, in the melioration of the condition of society,—more especially in such a form of society as ours, where the general diffusion of intelligence is so peculiarly connected with the affairs of the state, and where education is naturally the great organ of general good.

It is an object well deserving the express attention of the legislature of every state in the Union, that the training of youth for the high and responsible office of instructers, should not be left to hazard, or to the presumption of personal zeal and application. Instruction should, in this country, wear an aspect decidedly national and peculiar. It should, in a word, be a model for the efforts of the rising nations which are treading in our own political footsteps, and which are desirous of

adopting from us whatever can contribute to the same great results of personal and national prosperity, which are so fast accumulating here.

Instructers, it is true, like all other classes of society, are impelled onward by the great stream of improvement; and they cannot retrograde nor stand still, without injuring themselves. Their interest will induce them to raise their qualifications; and the demands of society will be met to some extent. But the mind which is willing to rest satisfied with this assurance, must be narrow indeed. Shall we place on the same sordid level the man who is to train our youth for the duties and the character of American citizens—with him whose services reach no higher than mere animal wants, or than idle gratifications which have no connection with the moral and political aspect of society? We are happy to see this important subject beginning to receive a portion of the attention which it merits; and we hope that the indications which have been given of a disposition to effect something in this department, will issue in provisions which shall be worthy of the character of those states in which such measures have been contemplated.

The system of mutual instruction, under various modifications, and different names, continues to advance with a celerity which cannot fail to render it the predominating method in every department. It is no longer a problem whether this system can be applied to the higher branches of intellectual culture. The system is daily gaining ground in our cities, and no less rapidly in our villages and school districts, generally. On this topic it is unnecessary to be more particular: the intelligence in our own pages may be taken as a specimen (for it is no more) of the progress of this department of improvement.

Among the numerous objects to which the attention of our readers has been directed, none seems to possess a deeper interest in connection with the general improvement of society, than the subject of *mechanics' institutions*. These useful establishments have multiplied and spread with astonishing rapidity in Europe, and bid fair to transform the intellectual character, and change the moral and political condition of the most numerous class of European population. Intelligence and refinement are fast raising the operative classes to a station in society, which none but a visionary would have predicted, fifty years ago. Political distinctions can offer no effectual barrier to the silent and gradual revolution which education is now effecting in the more enlightened nations of Europe; and happy will it be for all classes of society in those countries, if a regular and progressive melioration should effect what has hitherto been the result of revolutionary struggles and their attendant miseries—if the condition of the mass of society can be improved by mental culture so as to qualify the whole community, without reserve, for taking an active and intelligent part in the management of public affairs.

Mechanics' institutions, though not so immediately connected with the general interests of society in this country, still possess a peculiar interest in relation to the numerous class for whose benefit they are more particularly designed. In such schools of practical instruction there is something congenial to the spirit of our institutions, which at once demands and cherishes a high standard of intelligence in all classes of society, and presents no permanent obstacle to the career of improvement. The vast resources, too, of the country which enterprise and skill can alone develope, hold up high encouragement to scientific culture among our

mechanics. It is truly gratifying, therefore to observe schools of the kind just mentioned, becoming matters of popular attention and interest in our larger cities, and extending in some instances to seminaries of a higher order in villages. Among establishments devoted to scientific improvement in connection with preparation for the duties of active life, the Franklin Institute of Philadelphia is entitled to a distinguished place. Its Magazine for mechanics, and its High School for a superior style of practical education among youth destined for active pursuits, furnish advantages of a character hitherto new in this country; and which will, in all probability, exert a highly favorable influence on institutions that may spring up in other places, for the advancement of similar objects.

Proprietors of extensive manufactories have it in their power to do a great deal for the improvement of the persons employed by them. Some enlighted and benevolent individuals are beginning to feel their responsibility and discharge their duty in this particular, by assigning an hour daily to the business of instruction, and furnishing various facilities for making attainments in useful knowledge and in the arts.

The education of the *agricultural class* of our people was mentioned at an early stage of our work, as a branch of the subject which is entitled to peculiar attention. In England and Scotland, this department is daily receiving increased attention. *Reading associations* and *lending libraries* are constantly becoming more numerous, and are diffusing among the farming class the same spirit of improvement which has made so rapid a progress among mechanics.

Associations for mutual improvement are growing in number, in various parts of this country, and particularly in New England. These societies will, it is to be hoped, be soon so numerous as to be found in every village throughout the country. A regular plan for the formation of such associations has been proposed in this Journal: its leading features will be found serviceable in giving direction and scope to improvement whatever course may be adopted in the details.*

The establishment of the *London University*, as affording room for the interesting experiment of practical education on the broadest scale hitherto attempted, seems likely to produce an extensive reformation in the instruction given at higher institutions. An attentive mind cannot but observe how little there is in the whole range of college or university education which, on impartial examination, can be deemed serviceable to the great interests of actual life—how little there is of active training for definite pursuits—how little of invigorating discipline to the mind—how much that aims no higher than mere scholastic refinement, in obedience to the usage of antiquity—how much that has no definite aim whatever, beyond a suitable preparation for the enjoyment of a learned leisure; and how much that fosters an indolent and inefficient character of mind.

Amidst institutions, which, though deservedly of a high literary and scientific character, are yet so deficient in relation to the actual purposes of human life, the *London university* has risen up unshackled by ancient usage, unwieldy forms, or official control. It has risen under the auspices of liberal and philanthropic men,

* The draft of the plan has since been improved and published separately by its author, Mr. Josiah Holbrook. Associations of the kind proposed by Mr. H. have been formed in considerable number in Worcester county, in this state, and seem likely to spread still more widely. Their results, thus far, are highly encouraging. We shall mention them more at large, at a more convenient opportunity.

who have the magnanimity to leave it free scope over the whole field of improvement.

An institution so nearly approaching to the great objects of education in this country, cannot but furnish many valuable suggestions for improvement in our colleges and universities. These, it is true, have been already modified in many respects, so as to meet the demands of society. But as, in common with those of England, they were necessarily modelled on the monastic institutions of remoter times, they need such a reformation as does not stop at the bare introduction of a new book or a new branch of study. The whole system needs revision and adaptation to the existing state of society—not to say of a more enlightened and liberal view of the human mind. Take for example two of the liberal professions, theology and law. A leading object in preparing for these pursuits should be a course of active discipline, bearing a resemblance as near as possible to the actual occasions of professional life. Instead of this the student, is immured for several years in his room, withdrawn from the great field of observation, of action, and of improvement,—is compelled to sit down in passive attention to his books, or his lectures—and is called on for active discipline, barely often enough to give him by anticipation an unpleasant impression of the labor of actual business. He does not issue from the hands of his instructers well trained for his pursuits in life: his personal discipline he has yet to begin. Even in the details of writing and speaking, in which he ought to have acquired a perfect facility, he is still halting through an imperfect and late preparation. The school and college requisitions, which devolved on him once or twice in a month or a term, he finds, if he reflects at all, to have been a mere mockery of exercise.

Our present limits will not permit us to extend our remarks on this subject; otherwise the actual deficiencies of college and university education might be pointed out in several other departments, where their consequences are not less injurious.

The growing results annually reported in the department of *benevolent effort for the promotion of education*, are, this year, unusually interesting. The number of institutions devoted to the improvement of the *deaf and dumb*, is increasing in this country as well as in Europe; and experience is daily suggesting better methods of instruction, for furnishing those who would otherwise be outcasts from human intercourse, with the means of intelligent and useful communication with the more favored part of their species. The improvement of the condition of *the blind*, is attracting increased attention in Europe; and several interesting reports have been presented of the high pitch to which their instruction has been carried, in the various branches of useful knowledge, and in the common arts of life.

In the department of *missionary effort*, the progress of improvement is peculiarly interesting. The magnitude of the operations which are here connected with education, does not seem to be sufficiently known or appreciated. Many of the various missionary stations throughout the world have attached to them schools of practical instruction in the useful arts, for the benefit of adults; and most are furnished with well managed schools of common education for the young, who are, in large numbers, receiving the same elements of knowledge and of improvement which are developed in the happier sphere of civilised and polished society. Some of the missionary stations provide instruction of a still higher order, and open the

benefits of collegiate education to those who might otherwise have passed their lives in the ignorance and degradation of their ancestors.

That our intelligence of this kind has not been more full in our first volume, has not been owing to neglect. The extent of this department, and the multitude of interesting facts which it presents, made a systematic arrangement peculiarly desirable; while at the same time, considerable research was indispensable, in some cases, to procure exact information. A report embracing the leading facts in this department, will, we hope, be prepared in season for an early number of our next volume.

In this, as well as in other spheres of human improvement, it is gratifying to observe education recognised as the surest and most successful instrument of effecting good, and as that which, though others may occasionally be more rapid and striking, seems to be the destined method of elevating the human race to a character generally if not universally—marked by whatever is pure, noble, amiable, or happy.

Sunday schools—another fruit of christian philanthropy—are advancing with increased rapidity in the melioration of society.

The number of schools of this description is immense. Their benefits are invaluable to all classes. To the illiterate and the neglected they furnish instruction and counsel, without which the young must unavoidably grow up in the accumulation of evil habits and misery, if not of crimes and punishment. To the better taught they aid the domestic department of their education, and provide them with larger advantages for religious and moral improvement.

The condition of these schools is not a little interesting to persons who take a pleasure in observing the progress of improvement in education. A simple, familiar, and explanatory style is gaining ground in the manner of imparting instruction. The Sunday School Union of this country, an institution of great extent, and which is effecting much in this department, gives a decided preference to this method, which cannot fail to introduce it widely in American Sunday schools.—This is, we think, a point of great importance in connection with the developement of the mind, and the formation of character. It is of the highest moment that while intelligible and natural instruction is becoming more and more prevalent in ordinary schools, religious and moral impressions should not be left to depend on mechanical acts of learning and saying by rote what is not rendered accessible to the understanding, or interesting and impressive to the heart.

One feature in the character of recent improvement is the vast *superiority of current school books*. The plan and design of such works are, to a much greater extent than heretofore, accommodated to the juvenile mind. A systematic and strictly scientific arrangement are sacrificed to one which is intelligible and practical. The order of the mind in its natural progress is consulted in preference to that of the subject abstractly considered. The formation of mental habits is regarded, and the discipline which every science and every book may be made to administer, is becoming a matter of more distinct attention. These improvements are conspicuous in books prepared for the earliest stages of education.

Among works of this character it is hardly necessary to mention Colburn's treatises on *arithmetic*, which are now in use in most schools where the teachers

are anxious that their pupils should enjoy the benefits of improvement in school books. There are perhaps no works in any branch of education, which have effected so much for the instructer as well as for the learner—none that have thrown so much light at once on the theory and the practice of teaching, or that have exhibited in so happy a manner the natural progress of the mind, in its developement under a judicious discipline. These few unpretending volumes have carried into the humblest of our schools the philosophy of instruction, and have, in numerous instances, roused the attention of teachers to the use of the inductive method in other and very different branches of education.

In *geography*, the valuable little work of Mrs. Willard* deserves particular notice, as attempting a simple and intelligible method, by which this branch is brought within the scope of maternal care, and by which all intelligent teachers, from the primary schools upward, may improve the aspect of geographical instruction, so as to follow the natural progress of the mind, and cultivate those practical habits of attention and research, which are so serviceable to the business of life.

In the department of *grammar*, the works of Mr. Cardell are effecting a reformation which is much needed in the method of teaching the elements of this branch. Since Latin has ceased to sit as 'queen' among the languages, and to usurp a dominion over every other, how different soever in its character, it is high time that the English should assert its dignity, and receive that distinct attention to which it is entitled. It has long enough been tortured into the shape and attitude of a language with which it has very little in common, and by which its beauty and its power have been greatly diminished or obscured. We hope that time is not distant when it will not any longer be thought necessary to tramel children at a common school, with the whole equipment of the nomenclature and arrangement adopted by Latin grammarians; while the young learners have no other object in view, than a competent and practical knowledge of their native tongue.

The application of the inductive method to the study of the *ancient languages* has, within a few years, been much facilitated by elementary works prepared on the plan recommended by Locke,—that of using a simple narrative in conjunction with a literal translation. These manuals are becoming more numerous in England; and they will soon, we hope, be reprinted in this country. The prevailing method of teaching renders the study of Latin a dry and repulsive task, for at least the first year of the learners' progress; and by its unjustifiably slow and tedious manner of imparting knowledge, usurps a most unwarrantable proportion of the time and attention of youth; especially when we consider that of all the boys who enter a Latin school, a very small number ever turn their initiatory labor to any account, but, in fact throw away the invaluable hours of early life, which might have been devoted to useful acquisitions in practical knowledge. The new method adopted in the books just mentioned, is, on the contrary, pleasant and expeditious, as well as thorough. There is no delay for idle formalities; the learner is led at once to his object. In his very first efforts, he is conscious of the progress he is making; and he goes on with a cheerful impulse which accelerates his ad-

* Geography for Beginners.

vances. He thus redeems a large portion of time for other branches of study, and for useful accomplishments.

In the first stages of elementary education, much has been done of late to facilitate instruction by the use of a simpler method of teaching the art of *reading*. The system of Fulton and Knight, which is now so prevalent in Scotland and in England, and which corresponds exactly to that recommended by the Edgeworths,—is an invaluable expedient for saving time and labor, and at the same time furnishing the most thorough discipline. Greater improvements, however, are now making in this department. The most valuable of these is fully exemplified in Worcester's Primer, in which the leading feature of the plan is to let children become acquainted with words as they do with all other ocular objects, not piecemeal, not letter by letter, but at once and in the aggregate; the synthetic process preceding the analytic, as it naturally does. The latter method will be found still more speedy and efficacious than the other. Our future numbers will furnish specimens of instruction on this plan.

The year which has elapsed since the commencement of the Journal, has furnished some valuable contributions to the improvement of education, in the increasing number of *reading books*, designed for the diffusion of useful knowledge or of literary taste. It is a circumstance highly propitious to the intellectual and moral character of the young, that the books which they are daily perusing, and which necessarily leave deep impressions on the memory, are acquiring an aspect so friendly to their best interests. Several useful works of this kind, in various departments, have been brought forward in our notices; and in thus recommending them, we have not, we trust, proposed an unnecessary addition to the expenses of education. In schools where it is not advisable to introduce such works generally among the scholars, a single copy of each book,—passed, as it is read, from hand to hand, and introduced in the way of reward or recreation to proper classes,—may leave lasting and useful impressions on the minds of youth. The dissemination of intelligence and the general improvement of society, may thus be silently but effectually promoted to an indefinite extent.

The limits to which we are now restricted, will not permit us to indulge in a wider survey of our present subject; and we have but little space left in which to say anything of *the future direction and character of our own efforts*.

We may say, briefly, that the demands of improvement, as well as a persona conviction of duty, will lead us to reserve our pages more strictly for the admission of such matter as seems best adapted to promote practical reformation in instruction. We shall thus, we trust, render the Journal more valuable to parents and instructers who are desirous of using it as an assistant in their exertions for the expanding minds committed to their charge, and more serviceable to the views of school committees who are disposed to furnish the teachers whom they employ, with such aid as may be derived from our pages.

In casting a glance forward on the probable progress of another year, we must look to the support of those classes of the community that have just been mentioned, as most interested in our exertions. We feel called on to particularise another class of readers who may render effectual assistance not merely to our labors, but to the advancement of society—we mean the clergy; who may naturally be expected to take a deeper concern in the affairs of intellectual and moral improvement, than any other body of men.

Their aid has, indeed, to a considerable extent, been cheerfully afforded hitherto. But more, perhaps, might yet be done, by the pulpit being oftener employed for the purpose of urging the duty of general exertion for the improvement of education. Something might thus be effected more worthy of the example of our ancestors, and the interests of our country,—something more directly conducive to the advancing melioration of our race.

ANSWERS TO CORRESPONDENTS.

The unusual labor necessarily demanded by the preparation of the closing number of this volume, has put it out of our power to furnish our usual notices of school and juvenile books.

Among the works which claimed particular attention we can only hastily mention the annual supply of juvenile publications for the season, furnished by Messrs. Munroe & Francis, of this city.—Their selections for the present year seem peculiarly happy in many particulars which will be mentioned more at length in next number.

In the same department have been received an interesting selection from works published by Messrs. Wood and Son, New York.

Similar publications, embracing the series of the American Sunday School Union, have also come to hand. Of these there are many which we shall take an early opportunity of recommending to our readers.

The review of the Classical Reader will be given in our next; also several notices which have been unavoidably postponed.

INDEX

TO VOLUME I.

A

Address; 5
Academical Education; 524
Answers to Correspondents; 128 256, 320 384, 484, 512, 575, 640, 704, 763

B

Boston Monitorial School; 29, 72, 160
Boston High School for girls; 96
Boston Latin School; 209, 265
Boston School Committees' Regulations; 321
Boston Primary Schools; 385

C

Christ Church Sunday School, Boston; 279
Common education, improvement of; 664

F

Female education, 349, 401
Female Seminary, Wethersfield; 539

G

Georgia University, 475

H

Holland, primary schools of; 201

I

Infant Schools; 9, 65, 129, 257, 450, 513, 577

Intelligence.
French Academy of Education; 54, 121
General Knowledge Society; Practical education; 56

Intelligence—(continued.)
U. S. National University; 57
Governor Clinton's message, Jan. 1826; 58
Female High School of New-York; 59
Mr. Owen's school at New Harmony; 60, 377
Gov. Clinton's message Jan. 1826; 60
Boston High School for Girls; 61, 380
Physiology of man; Gymnasium proposed; 61
Monitorial schools in Europe; 121
City of London Infant Schools; Education in Buenos Ayres; 121
University of Virginia; 123
Boston Scientific Library; 180
Gov. Morrow's message Dec. 1825; Mutual instruction in Hayti, Colombia and Greece; College and school lands of Indiana; London professional and commercial institution; 183
London university; 184
Education in the Highlands of Scotland; 184
Wesleyan academy, Wilbraham, Mass.; 186
Geneva college, New-York; Proceedings of Congress on Education; 187

Intelligence—(continued.)
Mercantile libraries in the United States; 188
Edinburgh university; 247
Edinburgh asylum for the blind; 248
Law school at Northampton, Mass.; 249
Gymnasium at Cambridge; 250
Public schools in Pennsylvania; 251
Schools in Maine; 309
Transylvania university; 311
Influence of Infant Schools; 313
Charity school, St. John's, Southwark, London; 314
Webster's Dictionary; 315
London Gymnasium; 375, 430, 502, 625
Franklin Institute; 376
Noyes' School, New-Hampshire; 378
Attention to Education: 379
Education in India; 381
Deaf and dumb; 432
Derby Academy, Mass.; 432
Ontario Female Seminary; 434
Practical Institution, Mass.; 434
Boston Gymnasium; 436, 443, 701
Round Hill school, Northampton; 457
State of schools in Boston; 439
Albany Lancaster School; 440
Monitorial High School, Geneseo, New-York; 441
Connecticut common schools; 441
British and Foreign School Society; 445
Mr. Emerson's Female Seminary; 506
Mr. Thayer's School, Boston: 508, 561
College in Philadelphia; 566
American Annual Register; 568
Juvenile Miscellany; Map of Boston; 569

Intelligence—(continued.)
Abstract of Returns from the School Committees of Massachusetts: 570
Grammar School of Glasgow, Scotland; 571
American Sunday School Union; 626
Indian civilisation; 628
Mechanics' Institutions: 629
American Asylum for the deaf and dumb; 631
Sandwich Islands; Kosciusko School; 632
Physical culture and medical admonition; 633
Franklin High School, Philadelphia; Rensselaer School, Troy, New-York; 634
Col. Amoros' gymnastic school, Paris; 689
London Mechanics' Institution; Education in Lower Canada; 690
Education among the Hottentots; 691
Mexico; Colleges in the United States; 692
New-York central school; 693
Education in Buenos Ayres; 122, 694
Columbian college, District of Columbia; 696
Gymnastic exercise for females; 698
Teachers of gymnastics; 699
Irving's Address on the opening of the New York High School for girls; 270
Jullien's questions on education; 403, 481, 730, 734

L

Libraries; 667

M

Massachsetts practical institution proposed; 86, 144
Mechanics' Institutions; 134

Massachusetts public schools; 231
Monitorial Instruction, Manual of; 335
Mutual education; 594
Massachusetts Free Schools; 604, 651

N

New York common schools, 391
New York High School; 23

Notices.
Hints to Parents; Bentley's American Instructer; Fowle's Instruction to linear drawing; 62
Henz's French Reader; Helen of the Glen; Lights of Education; New Tales for Boy's; New Tales for Girls; 63
Little Henri; Warning and Example; Poetry without Fiction; Joseph Ellis; George Freeman; 64
Lee's Spelling Book; Reading Lessons for Primary Schools; Historical Pocket Library; 125
Conversations on common things; Wars of the Jews; Morse's Elements of Geography; 126
Morse's Universal Atlas; Hymns for children; The Robins; Tales of the Pemberton Family; 127
Little Flora; 128
Catalogue of the military academy Middletown; Monitorial schools; Young Ladies Astronomy; 189
Epitome Historiæ Græcæ; Sears' Spelling Book; Fowle's Catechism of English Grammar; 190
The Prize; Harry and Lucy concluded; 191
Nursery Morals; 192

Notices—(continued.)
Blake's Biblical Reader; Parker's Address; Wilbur's Scripture Tables; 253
Bolles' Spelling Book; Cornelius Nepos; 254
Fruits of Enterprise; Theodore; The Badge; 255
Comstock's Grammar of Chemistry; Leonard's Literary and Sientific Class Book; 317
Lessons in reading, spelling, and defining; Blair's Outlines of Chronology; 318
Exempla Minora; Robinson's Elements of Arithmetic; Adventures of Congo; 319
Lafayette; Brown's Child's First Book; 320
Art of Reading; Sacred Extracts; Brown's First Lines of English Grammar; 382
Blake's abridgement of Blair's Lectures; Alger's pronouncing Introduction and Reader; Goodrich's Outline of Bible History; 383
Fowle's Child's Arithmetic; 384
Gazeteer of New Hampshire; 446
Worcester's Friend of Youth; Coffin's Discourses on bathing; Son of a Genius; 447
Deformed Boy; 448
Pike's Arithmetic; Marshall's Spelling Book; 511
Harry and Lucy; Frank; 512
Williams' History of the American Revolution; 573
Richardson's American Reader; Fowle's Rational Guide; 574
Jane and her Teacher; George Wilson and his Friend; 575
Parkhurst's Moral Philosophy; 635
Juvenile Philosopher; Willard's Geography for Beginners; 636

Notices—(continued.)
Worcester's Epitome of Geography ; Franklin Primer ; 638
Cobb's Spelling Book ; 639
Juvenile Miscellany ; 640
Spafford's Gazetteer of New-York ; 702
Prize Book No. vi, of the Public Latin School, Boston ; 703
Friendless Boy ; Little Susan and her Lamb ; 704

P

Prospectus ; 1
Physical education ; 20
Partridge, (Capt.'s) Lecture; 395
Parents, suggestions to, 544, 601, 672, 734
Political view of education ; 597
Professional education ; 705

R

Reviews.
Mr. Greenwood's sermon before the Boston Female Asylum ; Wayland's Duties of an American citizen ; 42
Griscom's Monitorial Instruction ; 50
Hale's History of the United States ; 53
President Lindsley's Inaugural Address at Cumberland College ; 106
Instructions in gymnastic exercise ; 116
Reviews—(continued.)
Londe's Medical Gymnastics ; 235
Gould's Adam's Latin Grammar ; 239
Greek Grammars ; 293, 253
Alger's Pronouncing Bible; 303
Strictures on Murray's Grammar ; 307, 425, 556, 739
Classical Literature in England ; 370, 409
Wilbur's Reference Bible; 423
President Humphrey's Address ; 489
Remarks on Greek Grammars ; 496
Jardine's Outlines of Philosophical Education ; 547, 609
Webster's Chemistry ; 554
Moral characters of Theophrastus ; 623
Carter's Letters and Essays; 677
Frost's Class Book ; 737
Retrospect.—Progress of Education during the year 1826 ; 751

S

Scio College ; 81
School Fund for the several states; 220
Society of education ; 485
School books, improvement of ; 718

U

University education, 582, 641

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